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A VOCATIONAL NEEDS ASSESSMENT OF THE EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED ADOLESCENT

by

FRANCES A. RAUCH

(C)

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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A VOCATIONAL NEEDS ASSESSMENT OF THE EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED ADOLESCENT

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....
Supervisor

....

....

Date April 2/1984

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated
in memory of my parents.

ABSTRACT

Emotional disturbance in the adolescent population is a prevalent problem in today's community. It is estimated that ten to fifteen percent of this age group have psychiatric disorders. Literature suggests that the long term success of emotionally disturbed adolescents functioning to their optimum in the community after treatment is limited. Further studies conclude that vocational services are needed as vocational competence affects all other areas of community adjustment.

There is no evidence in the literature of any study which has specifically taken into account the "felt" needs of the adolescent clientele being served. As well, clarification of the vocational tasks and activities which are most relevant to the needs of problem youth is not given in the literature.

The present study is an exploratory endeavor to carry out the philosophy of community development by developing and administering a needs assessment questionnaire. The intent of the study is to elicit the vocational needs of a population of emotionally disturbed adolescents, in order to develop a preliminary vocational program plan.

Analysis of the data from the needs assessment questionnaire indicated the participants do indeed feel the need to acquire specific vocational skills and knowledge. As well, work experience is perceived as a viable part of their treatment program.

Results support the conclusion that work still remains an important tenet of society. Results also agree with the professional literature's contention that there is a relationship between the developmental needs of adolescents and vocational planning. The study identified a number of vocational dimensions which were viewed by the study population as being important.

In conclusion, the study's findings verify research in the literature which view vocational programming as an important component of treatment. As well, findings suggest that vocational planning may provide a forum for the adolescent to find a meaningful social role within the community. Further research would evaluate whether a vocational program based on the study's need identification would influence successful treatment outcome.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The present study has given consideration to the developmental tasks of normal adolescence. This is deemed necessary, for to understand the needs of the emotionally disturbed adolescent, an appreciation must be given to the needs of the so-called 'normal' adolescent.

1.1 Research Rationale

Specific consideration has been given to ideas from the theoretical frameworks on adolescent development put forth by Erikson, Marcia, Thornburg, and Havighurst. These writers, in building their frameworks, used the concept of age stages related to developmental tasks and the critical period hypothesis.

The present research incorporates this theoretical rationale by specifically focusing on two developmental tasks of adolescence which are identity development and vocational preparation and choice. Implied in the present research rationale is the perspective of adolescence as a life stage and a critical period in which the mastery of the tasks of identity development and vocational preparation and choice must be accomplished prior to tackling the responsibilities of sequential stages. Following this rationale is the implication that if these tasks are rendered difficult or not accomplished during adolescence, the effects are detrimental to the adolescent and his present and future role in society.

A key issue to be addressed is the present study's relevance to the area of community development. The link between the study's rationale and community development can be viewed from a number of perspectives.

Firstly, the adolescent sub-group of the population which is the study's concern is an important group to be focused on by community development. This is evident when one views the significance of their numbers in society. According to Statistics Canada, in 1981, the ten-to-nineteen age group accounted for 4,176,000 children or 17.4 per cent of the total population in Canada. The implication is clear that the influence of youth has a substantial place in society. As Gottlieb, Reeves, Houten and Warren (1966:27) state,"...huge proportions of the population are adolescents who will determine the maintenance of cultural continuity or be innovators of discontinuity and social change..." within society.

Secondly, in a world of changing values and behavioral patterns, society's most valuable population, the adolescent, is experiencing change and stress. With the increase in emotional disturbance in our adolescent population, we subsequently have more poorly adjusted adults (Dale 1978:

256). As a result, society is losing the future's most vital resource.

Consequently, adolescents should be included in community development's analysis of local problems and in the choice of the methods and programs it uses. Therefore, community development can be seen to have a role in the present study's attempt to find a corrective and a means by which the emotionally disturbed adolescent can make a significant and productive contribution to themselves and society.

By utilizing this rationale, the present research takes the following perspective of community development which also reflects a community mental health focus. Community development is viewed as a force which aims to maximize opportunities for people through a better understanding of their own potential and that of their social and physical environment (Special Planning Secretariat, 1965:2). Thus, "...the ultimate goal of community development is to help evolve through a process of organized study, planning, and action, a physical and social environment that is best suited to the maximum growth, development, and happiness of human beings as individuals and as productive members of society," (Poston, 1958:4).

Thirdly, although the present research in dealing with the emotionally disturbed adolescent has an obvious psychological focus, it is also within the realm of community development. This is supported when one considers the problem of emotional disturbance, not only as an intrapersonal problem, but also as an interpersonal problem. Thus the problem exists as the result of the failure of various systems in the community such as family, school, employment, and social agencies.

The present study is concerned in particular with the failure of society to provide adolescents with a productive role. This is supported by Reardon and Burck's (1975:9) belief that adolescents are delayed from participating in a meaningful way in society. This, plus the added stresses from continual changes in the social structure, have given adolescents little support in their search for their ultimate role in society.

Consequently, by not providing youth with activities to promote self-importance and identity formation, society actively encourages and fosters the coping strategies of apathy, resentment, and emotional maladjustment. Therefore, the focus of the present study is not only on the psychological nature of the emotionally disturbed adolescent's problem, but also on the community system in which the problem exists.

Lastly, the researcher supports the present study's relevance to community development within a professional context. It is suggested that there is an inclusive relationship between the professional operating principals of community mental health and community development. Essentially both are based on democratic values and working towards the same end.

Friedlander (1961:2) and Ross (1967:78), respectively, in stating the values and principles of community mental health and community development workers, stress the inherent worth, the integrity and the dignity of the individual and the right to self-determination. As well, Ross, in discussing the articles of faith of community development, states," the right of the individual to help in time of need and crisis and the importance of a social organization for which the individual feels responsible and which is responsive to individual feeling," (Ross, 1967:78).

In viewing these principles, the researcher suggests that there is a similarity in value fusion between the tradition of community mental health and community development. However, all too often, mental health workers have generally adapted only part of this tradition of principles -- that part concerned primarily with the individual. In addition, community development often makes operational only part of its tradition in focusing on community groups but often not encompassing the individual and direct service agencies. The present research is an attempt to bring together community mental health and community development. This is based on the rationale that their values and principles are naturally cognate with each other.

In order for community development to remain faithful to its principles, it can be seen that it does have a responsibility towards contributing to the process of identifying problems and solutions which effect the healthy adjustment of adolescents in the community. Therefore, the present research is relevant to community development as it is attempting to identify problem areas and plan a program to ensure the maximum growth and potential of emotionally disturbed youth in a productive role in society.

Following from this community development perspective, it is believed that adolescents must be engaged in significant community decision-making which affects their lives. Probably no group in our society feels a keener sense of alienation than youths, particularly those experiencing emotional and social stress. (Spergel, 1968:177).

It is a generally affirmed notion that community programs should be in response to needs which exist in the community. The present study is an attempt to carry out one of the most frequently cited initial steps in most outlines of the community development process.[2] This is the identification of needs through a 'needs assessment' strategy. The rationale for this is that community development has a role in the reduction of emotional disturbance and social stress, specifically, in the involvement of youth in expression of needs and in significant decision-making. Consequently, development of programs should follow from these needs and decisions.

1.2 Origin of the Research

At this point it is relevant to discuss the origin of the present study. During the past four years, the researcher has been involved in establishing the Adolescent Group Day and Evening Program at Alberta Mental Health Services, for emotionally disturbed adolescents. Many of these adolescents were experiencing symptoms such as depression, anxiety, low self-esteem, acting-out behavior, predelinquent behavior and alienation from their families and the community. While it is still in its developmental stage, the program is attempting to provide an integrated community assessment and treatment facility. The program is prevention and reality-oriented, emphasizing whenever possible, the innate strengths of individuals or groups, rather than focusing only on psychopathology.

The philosophy of the program is that every individual regardless of personal or environmental influences, has the choice to function constructively within his or her environment by learning their needs, and accepting their potentials and limitations. The major objective is to have the adolescents integrate into their community and function competently within their own potential and limitations.

Over the last four years, the program has subjectively proven itself as viable. The adolescents initially presented various levels of emotional and behavioral symptoms. These symptoms were alienating them from their families and community. During treatment, clinical symptoms of depression, anxiety, and psychosis have been successfully alleviated. Externalizing self-destructive behaviors have decreased. The initial stage of treatment is directed towards understanding the adolescent as a person and trying to see what is making him act or think in the way he does. Group and family therapy develop insight into the intra or interpersonal conflicts the adolescent is experiencing. The second phase of treatment is removal of these symptoms and incorporation within the adolescent of more constructive and appropriate means of self-expression.

The third phase of the program is the resolution and integration phase. Although the adolescents make significant personal, interpersonal and behavioral changes, the objective of community integration is often not being met. The adolescents after discharge often experience difficulty functioning to the maximum of their potential. Considering the weakening of the traditional value system and the breakup of the family, the difficulty of integrating the emotionally disturbed adolescent into his or her community is not surprising. The present study postulates that this problem can be alleviated by assessing the needs of the adolescent during the transition from the treatment program into the community.

From this information further program planning will provide the adolescent with the appropriate community services and linkages which will more adequately meet his needs. As well, more effective programming based on identified needs will give the adolescent the improved support and means to find a role within the community which is compatible with his abilities.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Emotional disturbance in the adolescent population is a prevalent problem in today's community. Health studies conducted in the United States (Henderson, Krupinski, and Stoller, 1971; Howells, 1971; and Rutter, Graham, Chadwick, and Yule, 1976) show the rates of prevalence for psychiatric disorders in this age group to be from ten to fifteen percent. Although prevalence studies of this nature have not been carried out in Canada, it is assumed that these figures have application to the youth in Canada. These statistics used as an estimation suggest that there is a considerable population of adolescents with emotional problems requiring active treatment.

In stating the problem that the present study is addressing, consideration is given to the nature of the societal and community influences in which the problem exists. Our society has become complex, affluent, turbulent, and is undergoing rapid changes (Reardon and Burck, 1975:9). Emotional disturbance and deviant social behavior are more readily stimulated in a period of rapid societal change. Deep frustration and failure result from the inability to find a place in the social order and to cope with the new and complex problems of daily living (Spergel, 1969:53).

The prevailing treatment which is available to the emotionally disturbed adolescent is specifically the problem which the present research is addressing. Despite the rather alarming prevalence of emotional disturbance in the adolescent population, treatment remains a rather cloudy area, and it has been estimated that only one in three adolescents who seek treatment actually receive it (National Institute of Mental Health, 1968). The literature suggests that the long term success of emotionally disturbed adolescents, functioning to their optimum in the community after treatment, is limited (Pichel, 1974; Kivowitz, Forgotson and Gottlieb, 1974; Russell, 1973; Herrera, Lifson, Hartmann and Solomon,1974).

In reviewing the literature, it is evident that mental health professionals are handicapped by the lack of sound objective information on which to base the planning and evaluation of adolescent treatment programs (Cardello, 1975:246I). Programs became highly specialized, based on psychiatric and disposition diagnoses, rather than on the basis of the needs of the adolescent population. It seems obvious to those who work out of a community development philosophy that community programs should be responsive to the client's "needs". It seems that all too often, however, the services or programs which do exist for the emotionally disturbed adolescent fail to solve community and adolescent problems. Siegel, Attkisson, and Carson point out reasons for this weakness, and some consequences, which appear to have wider application than the federal programs of which they speak:

> "...Programs emerge from a political context of confrontation between special and general interest groups, social service ideologies, demand for services, and the competition for access to resources. As a result, our communities are peppered with uncoordinated and loosely integrated programs that overlap and compete for sparse resources. Without adequate assessment of human service needs, this poorly monitored and uncoordinated situation will persist and worsen" (Siegel, Attkisson, and Carson, 1978:215).

There is little doubt that this has been a problem in many local treatment programs for adolescents. Despite the rhetoric of service to the people, it is too often the case that there is a paucity of research into needs which could guide these programs and improve their chances of success. Indeed, as Roberts (1979:88) has suggested, the desire of government and other agencies' administrations to see signs of action immediately, result in programs being initiated to meet assumed needs. Such pressure makes it difficult to follow through on the community development ideal that people should be encouraged to define their needs for themselves, the reason being that a substantial amount of time may be required to do so. Therefore, if professionals wish to see treatment programs become highly specialized based on the needs of the adolescent clientele being served, part of their work must involve ensuring that a valid assessment of the client's needs is carried out.

While taking into consideration the foregoing problems and solutions in the provision of treatment programs for the emotionally disturbed adolescent, the present research is specifically focusing on the following problem. Although many mental health professionals and researchers have proposed that favorable outcomes for adolescent treatment depends upon a vocational program, there is no evidence in the literature of any study which has specifically taken into account the "felt" needs of the adolescent clientele. Many researchers suggest that a vocational program is a necessary component to aid the adolescent in functioning in the community (Adilman, 1973; Fenichel, 1974; Schneider, Levinson and Weiss, 1974; Herrera, Lifson, Hartmann and Solomon, 1974; and Hoffman, Lehman and Zev, 1974).

There is a tendency, however, for the research literature to describe the need for vocational programming in vague and general terms. As a result, vocational programs are not clearly defined and the skills and knowledge necessary for successful programming are not identified. It is necessary for effective vocational program planning to delineate what specific areas of knowledge and skills are necessary to meet the needs of the adolescents in the client population.

1.4 Significance of Study

The proposed study is expected to make a contribution to the area of treatment for the emotionally disturbed adolescent by identifying what needs must be met to facilitate the adolescent's optimal functioning within the community. A comparison between "perceived needs" identified as being significant by professional literature and program planners and the "felt" needs of the study population will identify areas of deficiency in treatment programs. This information will help professionals dealing with the emotionally disturbed adolescent to identify and understand problem areas. Confirmatory results would be in support of findings (Herrera, Lifson, Hartman, & Solomon, 1974; Hoffman, Lehman, & Zev, 1974) that vocational programming is extremely important for the adolescent to integrate in a meaningful way into the community.

Several practical implications of the proposed study are apparent. Firstly, part of the significance lies in its contribution to specify in the vocational area the knowledge, skills, and behavior of the study population which require development. Furthermore, the practical significance resides in its attempt to carry out the philosophy of community development which is to base program planning and action on the 'felt needs' of the clientele being served. Thus the study will identify ideas for the Adolescent Group

Program's development so that it is responsive to the participant's needs. With the knowledge of the vocational needs of the adolescent study population, areas of demand for future treatment programming will be identified. Data obtained from the needs assessment will be analyzed and the findings implemented for future program development decisions.

Secondly, the development of an instrument in the form of a needs assessment questionnaire will provide a useful tool to be utilized on an ongoing basis. This instrument can be used by this study program and other adolescent treatment programs to ensure that the adolescent's needs are being met in their transition from treatment to the community. It is essential that research and program evaluations take place to assess treatment program efforts. In practical terms, if we are to continue the Adolescent Group Program with the aim to meet the needs of the adolescents, we require objective measures to monitor our efforts. Only in this manner can the program be justified. With the development of a needs assessment instrument, an internal monitoring system will be developed which can be used on an ongoing basis.

1.5 Thesis Plan

In Chapter Two, literature on adolescent development is reviewed in several pertinent areas. An attempt is made to systematically formulate a general theoretical background for the present study.

The theoretical overview is discussed in several sections. First, a general perspective on the theory related to adolescent development is given. Next, an attempt is made to provide a conceptual understanding of the importance of identity formation as an adolecent developmental task. Thirdly, the relationship between identity formation and vocational planning is supported through the presentation of vocational developmental and self-concept theory. Finally, from a community perspective, societal influences on work and vocational fulfillment are discussed. Overall, Chapter Two provides the theoretical rationale to support the premise that vocational planning is a necessary mechanism toward effective community integration.

In the third chapter, a literature review of research relevant to the present study is given. The major obstacles which have effected the lack of progress in adolescent treatment are identified. A brief perusal of adolescent treatment outcome studies is carried out. As well, attention is given to research studies which support the premise that vocational programming is an essential process towards community adjustment.

The fourth chapter describes the research design of the present study. The assumptions and aims underlying the study design are put forward. In addition, operational definitions are given for terms which are integral to the comprehensiveness of the research design. A description is given of the methodology utilized in carrying out the present study. Elaboration is given as to the design of the study instrument, its limitations, the measurements used in the statistical analysis, and the study's propositions.

The fifth chapter presents the results of the needs assessment questionnaire . As well, analysis of the data is incorporated into suggestions for vocational program planning.

The final chapter summarizes the research findings and puts forth the conclusions and recommendations of the present study.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

It is unlikely that writers in the field will ultimately agree on the best way to define adolescence. Perhaps with scientific data, the concepts of adolescence within the various frames of reference will become more easily identifiable. Adolescents, however they have been defined, have been perceived in varied and sometimes conflicting ways.

The word 'adolescence' comes from the Latin verb, 'adolescere,' which means 'to grow' or 'to grow to maturity' (Rice, 1978:53). Here it is defined as a period of growth between childhood and adulthood.

Adolescence may also be defined chronologically. Although such age definitions can be distorting and vary between cultures, they can prove useful for certain purposes, particularly legal ones. The most common age demarcations used for adolescence in the literature are ages twelve to eighteen and ages thirteen to nineteen (Rice, 1978:53).

For most people, adolescence is only an intermediate state between being a child and being an adult (Keniston, 1970:4). Taking this view, the present study defines adolescence as a transition stage in which individuals must complete certain tasks prior to taking their places as mature, responsible adults.

2.1 Theoretical Approaches to Adolescent Development

The study of adolescence may be approached by various theoretical frames of reference. One perspective of adolescence in which Hall (1904) has been influential is the biological view which emphasizes this period as one of important sexual and physical growth changes. Hall described adolescence as a period of great 'storm and stress.' Also taking a biological perspective, Gesell and Ames (1956:32) constructed descriptive summaries of growth gradients grouped in chronological stages and cycles of development. They view maturation as being mediated by genes and biology. This in turn determines the order of appearance of behavioral traits.

Sigmund Freud (1953) was the forerunner in the psychoanalytical view of adolescence. However, Anna Freud was more concerned with adolescence than her father and elaborated on the changes in the psychic structure of the child at puberty. She characterizes adolescence as a period of internal conflict, psychic disequilibrium, and erratic behavior (Freud, 1958).

Erikson modified Freud's theory of psychosexual development with the sociopsychoanalytical view of adolescence (Coles, 1970). Erikson (1959: 110) described eight stages of human development. The overall task of the individual is to acquire a positive ego identity from one stage to the next. Since this study is concerned only with the adolescent period, discussion will be limited to Erikson's only adolescent stage, the fifth stage, which is the adolescent task of identity versus identity diffusion. Further elaboration will take place later in this section as Erikson's theory relates to the stage theory of development.

Since Erikson first introduced his theory, numerous research studies have addressed his ideas. Studies by Marcia (1966:551; 1967:118; and 1970:249) have been particularly significant. According to Marcia (1966: 551), a mature identity is achieved when the individual has experienced a crisis and has become committed to an occupation and ideology.

In the study of adolescence, the sociological view focuses on the social environment as the important determinant of adolescent development. Davis' (1944:I) position essentially involves the importance of socialization and agents of socialization in shaping the adolescent. He sees the process of maturation during adolescence as the process of becoming socialized. Bandura and Walter's (1959;1963) social learning theory emphasizes that children learn through observing behavior and modeling response patterns.

Related to the sociolgical frame of reference is the anthropological view of adolescence. Forerunners in this field, Mead (1950) and Benedict (1950) emphasize in their theories that the influences on the child are dependent upon the culture in which he grows up.

Definition of Adolescent Development

Various viewpoints on adolescent development have been presented to serve as background to this area. Each perspective with its own advantages and disadvantages has made a contribution to the understanding of adolescence. However, the theories used in the present study to formulate an understanding of adolescent development are the developmental stage theory and critical stage theory. The developmental approach to the study of adolescence specifies that at each life stage including adolescence, an individual should master a particular developmental task.

In recent years, psychologists have been paying considerable attention to the related concepts of developmental theory, stage theory, and critical period. Stage theory has a venerable history, for among its early proponents were Aristotle and Rousseau (Rogers, 1977:4). According to the theory, human development progresses by stages, each of which possesses a certain distinctiveness.

The concept of stage theory related to developmental theory assumes tasks must be accomplished at particular stages before an individual can satisfactorily transact the responsibilities of higher stages (Donovan, 1975:37). The critical period hypothesis suggests that certain times in life are especially significant for the acquisition of particular types of experience. The concept of critical period is implicit in much of the developmental stage theory (Rogers, 1977:41).

The following authors have viewed adolescence as a life stage as well as a critical period in which specific developmental tasks must be accomplished.

Thornburg (1970:463) assigns eight developmental tasks to adolescence. The two which are relevant to the present study are striving toward economic independence, and making vocational selection and preparation.

Havighurst (1972) outlined a developmental task theory which is eclectic. He sought to develop a psychosocial theory of adolescence by combining consideration of individual needs with societal demands. Mastery of adolescent tasks results in adjustment and maturity. Failure to master the tasks results in anxiety, social disapproval, and inability to function as a mature person. According to Havighurst, there is a teachable moment, a correct time for teaching any task. Although Havighurst (1972:49) outlined eight major tasks during the adolescent period, preparing for an economic career is the task relevant to the present study.

Erikson's theory, which was previously mentioned, utilizes developmental stage and critical stage theory. In each of Erikson's eight stages, the individual has a psychosocial task to master. The confrontation with each task produces conflict, with two possible outcomes, either positive or negative. If the conflict persists, or is unsatisfactorily resolved, the ego is damaged because a negative quality is incorporated into it which hinders its effectiveness to successfully master successive stages (Erikson, 1950:234).

Erikson emphasizes in his sixth stage, 'adolescence,' that it is the time that an individual must establish a sense of personal identity and avoid the dangers of role diffusion and identity diffusion (Erikson, 1968:235).

Erikson views adolescence as a psychosical moratorium. He defines this as a period in which the individual through free role experimentation may find a niche in some section of society (Erikson, 1959:132). He emphasizes that to establish identity requires individual effort in evaluating personal assets and liabilities. Erikson suggests the need to learn how to use these assets in working to achieve a clear concept of who one is and what one wants to be and become (Erikson, 1959:132).

For the purposes of the present study, the theory of adolescent development is being viewed from a particular vantage point. Consideration has been given to specific developmental tasks outlined in the perspectives of Erikson, Marcia, Thornburg, and Havighurst. Identity development and vocational preparation and choice are the developmental tasks which contribute to the theoretical premise of the present study.

Developmental stage and critical period theories are implicit in the understanding of these tasks and their relationship to the present research. Thus, adolescent development is defined as a critical stage in which the mastery of the developmental tasks of identity attainment and vocational preparation and choice must be accomplished. The task of identity development will be discussed in greater depth in the following section.

2.2 Theoretical Perspectives on Identity Formation

To understand the importance of identity formation in adolescent development, a theoretical perspective on personality development is needed. The perspectives and theories on personality development are too numerous and complex to come within the realm of the present study. Discussion will, therefore, be limited to the psychoanalytical theories of personality development. These theories are most congruent with the study's definition of adolescent development. The following discussion will provided a theoretical understanding to the present study's definition of identity formation.

Freud made the first systematic attempt to outline a theory of personality development. He utilizes the three basic structures and functions of the id, the ego, and the superego. The ego's main task is self-preservation. Defense mechanisms control the anxiety caused by inner tension arising from the conflict among the id, superego, and the outer world (Freud, 1964:141).

Following Freud's trend of ideas, Erikson conceptualized the ego as a "central organizing agency." He attributed to it the synthesizing function necessary for maintaining a balance between the demands of the society and the environment on the outside, and the id, the ego, and the superego on the inside (Erikson, 1968:211).

According to Erikson, the central principle which is responsible for the organization of personality is known as the concept of identity. Further, Erikson suggests that identity is the result of the ego's synthesizing functions, and is characterized by "an actually attained but forever to be revised sense of the reality of the self within social reality" (Erikson, 1968:211). According to Erikson (1950:270), adolescence as a developmental stage is crucial to the development of identity.

Erikson feels that during adolescence there must be an integration of all converging identity elements and a resolution of conflict that he divided into seven parts. Role experimentation versus role fixation and apprenticeship versus work paralysis are the two conflicts relevant to the present study. Erikson acknowledges that if one is able to resolve these conflicts in adolescence, a firm identity emerges (Erikson, 1959:52).

The term 'self-concept' is commonly used in the literature on adolescent identity development. Zahran (1967:225) defines self-concept as the conscious cognitive perception and evaluation by individuals of themselves.

Strang (1957) specifically outlines four basic dimensions of an adolescent's self-concept. Firstly, there is the overall basic self-concept, which is the adolescent's perception of his abilities, status, and roles in the outer world. Secondly, there are the individual's temporary or transitory self-concepts. These ideas of self are influenced by recent or ongoing experience in the adolescent's life. Thirdly, there are the adolescents' social selves, the selves that they think others see, which influence how they see themselves. Fourthly, there is the ideal self, the kind of people adolescents would like to be.

Self-concepts are always in the process of crystalization, particularly during adolescence, when they are undergoing maximum change (Rice, 1978:218). Consequently, as part of identity development, adolescents are preoccupied with attempting to close the gap between their self-perceptions and their ideal selves. Ideally, by late adolescence, they have managed to sort themselves out by determining what they can most effectively be and to integrate their goals into their ideal selves (Rogers, 1972:19). Realistic self-concepts lead to self-acceptance, mental health, and accomplishment of realistic goals (Zehran, 1967:225).

While building concepts of themselves, adolescents must deal with the esteem with which they view themselves. If people are to have self-esteem, there must be a correspondence between their concepts of self and their self-ideals (Connell, 1970:268; Carlson, 1965:659).

Social Aspects of Identity Formation

In defining identity formation, the present study has considered both the individual and social aspects of its development. The previous discussion on psychoanalytical theories and self-concept provide a view of the individual aspect of identity formation. Paranjpe's (1975) work, as discussed below, gives consideration to the social aspect of identity formation.

The reason adolescence may be regarded as a period of life crucial for the development of identity can be understood by viewing the developmental changes of this phase of life. Paranjpe, in terms of systems theory, has laid out a framework which views adolescent development in relation to the preparation for a role in society. Paranjpe's work is cited as it illustrates how the individual development of identity is influenced by the external social forces of society.

First, with the onset of puberty, the adolescent undergoes a variety of changes physiologically, and psychologically (Paranjpe, 1975:62). A sense of identity is defined by Erikson (1950:261) as an "accrued" confidence that the inner sameness and continuity prepared in the past are matched by the sameness and continuity of one's meaning for oneself and others.

This sense of identity is difficult to develop when one considers that sameness and continuity are threatened during adolescence by several biological and social factors. Paranjpe suggests that the transition from an economically dependent childhood role to that of an economically independent occupational role may come about in an abrupt rather than gradual manner. Such a discontinuity in transition of roles may threaten the essential continuity of the personality (Paranjpe, 1975:62).

This is not to suggest that all adolescents must face problems during adolescence. The point Paranjpe makes is that wherever the social system demands abrupt changes in role behavior, the personality may face problems in its growth.

In order to avoid problems during identity formation, Erikson (1950:105) suggests a need for the individual to maintain a balance between individual and social aspects of identity. He uses the term 'psychosocial equilibrium' to refer to such a balance. In his view, psychosocial equilibrium is one of the integral aspects of identity.

Paranjpe expresses the same idea in terms of systems theory. According to Paranjpe, identity and society are independent and, yet interdependent and interpenetrating systems. Identity and the social system interpenetrate in having social roles as common functional units of both. Thus, according to Paranjpe, the solidarity of the individual with the community can be said to be the result of the emotional investment and commitment to the various social roles which he plays. The concept of identity therefore includes the solidarity of the individual with the community (Paranjpe, 1975:45).

Definition of Identity Formation

Based on Erikson's and Paranjpe's conceptualization of identity formation and its interrelatedness with the community social system, identity will be defined as it is used used in the present study. In the preceding definitions of ego and identity, Erikson conceived of ego as the synthesizing process and identity as the result of the ego's synthesizing function. For the sake of parsimony, the present study utilizes the word 'identity' to signify both process and result because they are so closely and inextricably related. Thus, for the purposes of the present study, identity is the synthesizing process and the central organizing principle of the personality system that accounts for its unity, sameness, and continuity. In addition, identity is viewed as linking the personality system with the larger social (and other) systems within which the personality system functions.

This definiton of identity is based on the assumption that adolescence is the period of life when the personality system comes into simultaneous encounter with higher order social systems in the community. This is an untested assumption based partly on the rationale discussed above, and partly on the observations of psychologists like Paranjpe and Erikson.

The Failure of Identity Development During Adolescence

The developmental task of identity formation is not equally easy for every adolescent to accomplish. A relationship has been established between mental health and identity (Oshman and Manosevitz, 1974:207). Psychological maladjustment occurs in adolescents when there is a divergence between the selves they are being in relationship to others and the selves they perceive that they are or want to be (Hansen and Maynard, 1973:9).

Erikson (1956:77; 1968:165) is well known for his studies on identity diffusion in adolescents. According to Erikson, the syndrome consists of a painfully heightened sense of isolation; a disintegration of the sense of inner continuity and sameness; a sense of overall ashamedness; an inability to derive a sense of acomplishment from any kind of activity; a feeling that life is happening to the individual rather than being lived; a radically short time perspective; and finally a basic mistrust (Erikson, 1956:81).

Erikson (1956:72) makes it clear that identity diffusion is often transitory. When not prolonged into later developmental stages, it is considered a normative crisis within the range of normal rather than abnormal psychology.

Donovan (1975:32) describes identity diffused students as having few plans and personal commitments, feelings of 'inferiority,' 'alienation,' and 'ambivalence,' and having the lowest self-esteem. According to Howard and Kubis (1964:459) and Nixon (1964:71), individuals whose identities are weak or whose self-esteem has never sufficiently developed manifest symptoms of emotional ill health. They are more prone to experiencing anxiety and psychosomatic illness (Rosenberg, 1965:149) and tend to have a shifting and unstable identity (Rosenberg, 1965:152). As well, there is a close relationship between self-concept and social adjustment (Lawrence, 1965:328). The ability to set vocational goals and have future aspirations is also dependent on a person's self-esteem (Rosenberg, 1965:225). A correlation between delinquency and low self-esteem resulting in the choice of a negative identity has been established (Rathus and Siegel, 1973:265; Nash, 1965:261; Reckless, 1961:18; Schwartz and Tangri, 1965:922; and Erikson, 1956:88).

The establishment of one's identity is related to the preparation for a vocational role in society. Erikson describes the psychosocial task involved in finding one's identity in society in the following terms: "Man, to take his place in society, must acquire a 'conflict free' habitual use of a dominant faculty, to be elaborated in an occupation..." (Erikson, 1968:65).

It is evident that vocational preparation and occupational choice is related to the attainment of one's identity in society. Such preparation decreases the discontinuity in transition of roles from an economically dependent child to an economically independent child. In turn, this insures that during adolescence the essential continuity of the personality is not threatened (Paranjpe, 1975:62).

Thus, the developmental tasks of identity formation and vocational preparation can be seen to be interrelated in the adolescent's search for his ultimate role in society. The task of vocational preparation and its role in identity formation within the community social system will be discussed in the following section of the present chapter.

2.3 Theoretical Perspectives on Vocational Development

There exist many theoretical perspectives on vocational development. Osipow (1968:10) uses the following four categories in discussing the theoretical approaches to vocational development.

The trait factor theories assume that a straight forward matching of individuals abilities and interests with the world's vocational opportunities can be accomplished (Parsons, 1909; Hull, 1928; and Kitson, 1925).

The sociological model has the notion that the principal task confronting youth is the development of techniques to cope effectively with his social environment (Caplow, 1954; Hollingshead, 1949; and Miller and Form, 1951).

A third category might be called the personality approach. Here the ideas range from elaborate lists of needs (Hoppock, 1957) and the detailed personality types for career areas (Holland, 1959) to the assorted empirical studies of Small (1953), Schaffer (1953), and Roe (1957).

The fourth approach actually weaves two models into one and can be called either the developmental or the self-concept theory. Discussion of this theory will occur later in this section.

It is important to note that these previously mentioned models are not independent of one another, but are closely intertwined. No one theory or perspective of vocational development truly covers all the variables, i.e. needs, personality factors, environment, socio-economic status, familial and peer influences which are influential in vocational choice. Vocational development is a complicated process which is influenced by many factors. Much research has been done in this area. However, it is not within the realm of the present study to review all the factors which have been found significant. The review and discussion will be limited to the developmental and self-concept theories of vocational development as they relate to the present study.

A basic construct of vocational developmental theory is that maturation and career development are closely related. As a person matures, progress occurs through a series of developmental career life stages with opportunities at each stage to successfully encounter specific tasks (Pietrofesa and Splete, 1975:141). The concepts of developmental life stages and critical stage theory, which have previously been discussed, are fundamental to this particular approach. The developmental stages of vocational theory reflect notions of what a person of a certain age should be like or be able to do (Herr, 1974:266).

Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad and Herma (1951) in their writing point out the correlation between the principles of developmental psychology and vocational development. In their theory, the major periods are the fantasy (before age eleven), the tentative choice (between ages eleven and seventeen), and the realistic choice period (between ages seventeen and young adulthood) (Ginzberg, 1952:491).

Several other authors have posited stages of vocational development. Super (1953:185) states ten propositions of career theory, including the notion of life stage influences on career process, and the possibility of facilitating development through these stages. Super's life stages relevant to adolescence are the growth stage (birth to age fourteen) and the exploration stage (age fifteen to age twenty-four).

Havighurst (1964), who as previously mentioned contributed to the notion of adolescent developmental tasks also focused upon vocational developmental stages. One of the tasks of adolescence, according to Havighurst, is "to organize one's plans and energies in such a way as to begin an orderly career, to feel able to make a living" (Havighurst, 1972:62). Actually accomplishing this task at adolescence is only one stage in the process of six vocational stages. The third stage, "acquiring an identity as a worker in the occupational structure," also ideally occurs in adolescence (Havighurst, 1964:216).

The basic theoretical premise to be considered in vocational self-concept theory is that an individual implements his self-concept by choosing to pursue a career that will allow for self-expression. The expression of self is considered a motivating force in evaluating the attractiveness of an occupation (Oppenheimer, 1966:191).

The conception of occupational choice as implementing the self-concept began to bridge the gap between personality theory and vocatonal psychology. Super defined the process of vocational development as that of developing and implementing a self-concept. According to Super, an individual needs to develop an accurate perspective about his abilities and potentialities, his ideal self, the discrepancy between the two, and his willingness to change life style aspirations (Super, 1953:189).

Crites elaborates upon the relationship between vocational choice and self-concept when he writes that

> "...as an individual grows older, he inte-

> grates the various pictures he has of himself into a consistent self-concept, which he strives to preserve and enhance through all his activities, but particularly through his occupational activities. He attempts to select an occupation which will be compatible with his self-concept and which will allow him to make it a reality by permitting him to play the role he wants" (Crites, 1969:98).

View of Vocational Development

The present study's view of vocational development integrates the two models of developmental and self-concept theories into one. This view of vocational development holds as its general thesis that 1) individuals develop more clearly defined self-concepts as they grow older which vary to conform with the changes in one's view of reality; 2) people develop images of the occupational world which they compare with their self-image in trying to make career decisions; and 3) the adequacy of the eventual career decision is based on the similarity between an individual's self-concept and the vocational concept of the career he eventually chooses. This position evolved out of the early work of Buehler (1933), and more recently the work of Osipow (1968), Super (1957), Samler (1953), Ginzberg and associates (1951), and Roger (1951).

In viewing vocational development the present study emphasizes its relationship to identity formation. Herschenson (1968) attempted to synthesize Freud and Erikson's theories of personality development with vocational developmental theory. According to his framework, Freud's stage of 'adolescence' and Erikson's stage of identity relates to the vocational stage of independence which is 'goal directed' and achieved through 'an occupation' (Hershenson, 1968:23).

Hershenson's framework illustrates that there is indeed a correlation between vocation and identity formation during adolescence. This can be understood when we consider that people need to meet their emotional needs for recognition, praise, approval, and independence. According to Perrone, Antoinette Ryan, and Zeran (1970:86), the manner in which individuals do this is by taking on a vocational identity, by becoming 'somebodies' whom others can recognize, and by which others grant emotional fulfillment. Thus, through vocational identification, people find self-hood, self-realization, and self-fulfillment (Perrone, et al., 1970:86).

McCandless (1970:Ch. 8) feels that adolescents are strongly motivated in their search for identity and self-satisfaction to make a vocational choice that will contribute to their fulfillment. Thus, for adolescents, their vocation is one channel through which their life goals and purposes might be fulfilled. It is the particular 'niche' they feel compelled to fill in the world.

As previously mentioned, adolescence is the prime time to lessen the gap between basic self and ideal self. Vocational preparation and choice is viewed by the present research as a means of achieving congruence between basic self and ideal self.

Obviously there are other influences on identity formation. These influences are not being negated. The premise of this study is that vocational preparation and choice is an important influence on identity formation.

Research on the Self-Concept Theory of Vocational Development

A great deal of research has substantiated the hypothesis that self-concept is closely related to occupational level, job satisfaction, and academic achievement. Greenhaus (1971:83) found low self-esteem persons likely to choose occupations below their ability, personality, and interest functioning. Korman (1967:67) found that low self-esteem individuals with past unmet needs become accepting of unsatisfying vocations and actually seek them out.

Self-concept reflects the individual's ability to evaluate oneself realistically. Patterson (1957:379) noted that the emotionally disturbed have difficulty making good occupational choices. Oppenheimer's (1966:191) findings agreed with the thesis that people who are dissatisfied with themselves are dissatisfied with their work. Tseng (1972:314), studying people with vocational rehabilitation problems, noted that poorly defined self-concepts contributed to their occupational problems. The research of Borow and his co-authors enumerated several of the typical consequences for vocational development that emotional disturbance and low self-esteem may produce in the adolescent. These are as follows: 1) persistent feelings of personal inadequacy as a worker-to-be; 2) lack of a sense of direction whereby one simply does not believe in the efficacy of rational planning for one's future; 3) disturbing disparity between one's verbalized occupational aspirations and one's actual expectations; 4) subjective occupational foreclosure whereby one prematurely and unconsciously rejects many occupations from consideration; and 5) lack of realism evidenced by poor understanding of the sequence of preparatory steps leading to the announced vocational goal (Borow, 1968).

In short, research has established that vocational choice is affected by one's self-concept. Therefore, emotionally disturbed adolescents having poor and unrealistic self-concepts can perpetuate these concepts by moving toward inadequate vocational choices. Based on this, the developmental self-concept theory of vocational development lends support to the hypothesis that a vocational program is a necessary component to the treatment of emotionally disturbed adolescents (further research to validate this will be discussed in the following chapter).

In viewing vocational development, both the intrapersonal and interpersonal problems facing the adolescent must be considered. Society has cultural and social influences which determine the accessibility of opportunities for the adolescent to successfully accomplish the developmental tasks of identity formation and vocational choice. Youth today are living in a complex and ever changing society. As a result, these forces render the tasks of knowledge and awareness of oneself and vocational planning and choice as confusing and complex. These societal influences have even more dramatic implications when one considers the emotionally disturbed adolescent. For this reason, the following section will elaborate on the implications that societal change have on adolescents as they approach the task of vocational preparation and choice.

2.4 Society and Vocational Preparation

In viewing work attitudes in society, it is evident that a number of changes have occurred over the last century. Herr (1974:161) refers to North America as a classic example of a heavily work oriented society. Some attribute this to the so-called Protestant work ethic.

Swiftly moving social, economic, and technological changes following World War II led many to ponder the worth and meaning of work experience (De Grazia, 1962). During the sixties, youth were troubled by predicted mass unemployment and perceived limited life options. Since the sixties, although unemployment remains a national problem, the emphasis appears to have shifted to the alleged depersonalization of many of today's jobs (Swados, 1969:13) As a result, work attitudes and the work ethic itself have been undergoing change.

Work Attitudes of Adolescents

Studies have been done in the area of work attitudes in youth. Borow (1966), in reviewing these studies, suggested that youth have negative and rejecting attitudes towards work. Borow, (1968) in another study concluded that youth perceive self-actualization through work as a remote possibility.

Herr and Neff both challenge this conclusion. Herr feels that the intensity of the above attitudes have led to the false conclusion that youth as a class repudiate work as an obligation and as a redeeming human experience. He states that survey findings indicate that the so-called counterculture embraces only a relatively small number of individuals (Herr, 1974:22). To support this, Neff writes that "in the main in our society, few if any, prospective means to personal power, status, meaningful existence and self-worth exist apart from work. The vast majority of North Americans...demonstrate that this is true" (Neff, 1974:156).

Similarly, Katz (1973:99) states that work remains a "major tenet of the North American culture." It is not surprising, therefore, to learn that the work ideals of most high school students do not differ radically from those of their parents' generation (Measurement Research Centre, 1972). Actually, Herr concludes that youth seem to take work more seriously than their elders. They place more importance on how a job contributes to self-expression, self-esteem, usefulness, and expansion of skills (Herr, 1974:10).

The Work in America Special Task Force (1973:22) in agreement with this, concluded that work still holds a central position in the lives of youth and brings order and meaning to life. Also, the Yankelovich report (1972) found four out of five college students committed to work as an essential way of life. In Goodwin's (1971) interviews with disadvantaged youth, they saw a meaningful job as enhancing their self-esteem and avowed to continue working for other than economic reasons.

Thus, these studies support the notion that the work ethic has undergone a metamorphosis. As Story points out, the new work ethic stresses "...such factors as inner satisfaction, the sense of making a contribution, and the feeling of appropriate status and well-being" (Story, 1977:144). In short, the "fulfillment ethic" seems to have replaced the Protestant work ethic, which made a virtue of work itself (Light and Laufer, 1975:93).

Although the preceding studies support the conclusion that youth still value work, many tout the value of work for teenagers. Little systematic research has been done on the benefits of employment for teenagers.

Greenberger and Steinberg (1980:46), by administering a questionnaire to students in four California high schools, and Cole (1980:44), by interviewing twenty-five young people across the United States, addressed this issue. Even though these studies approached the issue in different ways, they reached complementary conclusions. The findings confirm that for young people, working is a way to acquire practical knowledge and skills, assess goals, develop self-confidence and pride from a sense of accomplishment and a means to learn to manage emotions and behavior. The studies showed that students who had most difficulty at school learned the most from working. As well, even the youngsters who disliked their jobs enjoyed the sense of independence and power.

A study by Hammond (1971:55) in the United States asked students who worked part-time to state their personal reasons for working. Although money was the most important reason, they were also interested in work to learn to get along in the adult world, to get experience in a vocation, to fill their time, and as an enjoyable activity. Although the majority of these studies were performed in the 1970's, they provide evidence that youth value work.

However, there is some controversy over the idea of allowing youth work participation. Many adults honestly feel that we do youth a favor by exempting them from work. As well, most textbooks on adolescent theory do not even mention "work" as important to youth, except as a way of earning money. Roszak, in support of this contention, feels that our leisure-wealthy society does not have an abundance of jobs for youth and can afford "to prolong the ease and drift of childhood" (Roszak, 1968:31).

Roszak and others, who take this point of view, forget that youth have an obligation to contribute to society. Since work is a central fact of adult life, work experience prepares youth for the demands of adult society. In support of this, Mitchell makes the point that psychologists often overlook work as one of the primary means by which a person can construct, change, or modify his world (Mitchell, 1975:25). As well, Neff elaborates on the importance of work other than as a means to make money. He states that it is seldom acknowledged that people work to maintain self-esteem, avoid boredom, acquire an identity, and feel responsible (Neff, 1968:141). According to Mitchell (1975:25), teenage school dropouts support this by claiming that they feel more worthwhile and constructive working than when they were forced to "do nothing" at school.

Societal Influences on Vocational Preparation

The importance of work to adolescents can be seen when one views the classical picture of adolescence as a struggle for emotional and economic independence. Further, as Erikson specifies "...identity maturation in adolescence is the time when the individual through role experimentation finds a niche in society, reconciles his conception of himself and his community's recognition of him" (Erikson, 1956:66). However, this process is dependent on society's identification and recognition of the adolescent as being important.

Thus far, support has been given to the notion that youth do not disdain the idea of work as a necessary and, at least potentially, meaningful and rewarding activity. However, the value of work and the socialization process operating in society are in conflict. In support of this contention, Ficks writes

> "...the delay in adolescents participating in a meaningful way in society has given adolescents no support in their search for their ultimate social role in society" (Ficks, 1976:91).

Similarly, other writers feel that society is falling short of its obligation to give recognition to adolescents and socialize them in a vocational role. Friedenberg (1959), in his writing suggests that adolescence as a life stage for preparation and identification with adult responsibilty is waning. Rogers (1977:137) elaborating upon this states that the adolescent's need to prepare and choose a vocation is compounded in magnitude by a highly industrialized society. The end result is a sense of alienation from society and adult identities.

Historically, technology has had an important role in diminishing both the family's and community's capacity to prepare adolescents for adulthood. The organization of the household and the occupational structure has radically changed (Herr, 1974:10). In the first half of the twentieth century, identity was achieved through the selection and preparation for an occupation, since work was the basis of life (Havighurst, 1972:69). Since the depression years, youth are no longer economic assets to the household and society. The occupational potential of youth is delayed through the impositon of age, education and experience barriers (Adelson, 1969:7). Now Havighurst (1972:69) feels, with the emphasis on expressive values, nothing has yet replaced occupational choice and preparation as the sure means of identity formation.

As well, it is difficult for adolescents to establish a stable vocational identity in a fluid technological economy (Rogers, 1977:138). These factors result in an overly long period in which the adolescent remains a dependent being. Further, when adolescents are continuously prohibited from doing worthwhile and important work, feelings of nonworth naturally fill the adolescent self-image (Mitchell, 1975:161).

Thus, in many ways, we are raising adolescents in an environment that does not provide the permission and encouragement to foster self-actualizing growth and healthy adjustment.

Consequences of Societal Influences for Adolescents

A careful examination of the preceding societal conditions suggests that today's adolescents have been living in a world which is in the midst of change and transition. It is true that every generation has felt the shock of history, but probably not as deeply as today's youths (White, 1973: 19). Not all influences need be negative, however the point is that the potential for greater prevalence exists. Similarly, not all adolescents have emotional problems, but "...the widespread increase of mental illness, alcoholism and drug abuse, and various forms of 'acting out' behavior among youths indicate many do have psychological problems" (Rice, 1978:44).

The suggestion made is that social stresses and the lack of goal-directed and constructive outlets are creating part of adolescents' problems (Miller, 1974:110). When one considers the inevitable psychological results, the picture is rather dismal. Herr addresses this in his description of the psychological makeup of the young as being "feelings of powerlessness, unstable vocational selfconcepts, distaste for many forms of work, substitution of vocational fantasies and avoidance of realistic planning and exploration. The significance of these conditions results in the alienation of youth from society at large" (Herr, 1974:26).

In analyzing the work alienation phenomenon, the Work in America Special Task Force (1973) identified powerlessness, meaninglessness, isolation and self-estrangement, as being components of the work experience.

In considering the emotionally disturbed adolescent, the consequences of limited vocational opportunity become even more severe. Mitchell, in discussing the problem adolescent, states "these adolescents deprived of meaningful forms of self-assertion invent outlets for its release, many of which are violent and self-destructive" (Mitchell, 1975:68).

Fishman writes "that the lack of social and economic opportunities has generally been associated with many characteristics of the problem adolescent such as poor self-image; feelings of powerlessness; lack of a future orientation; fatalistic attitude; depressed expectations for achievement; and, finally, a greater potential for anti-social behavior" (Fishman, 1965:1). The distinctive importance of the correlation between limited economic opportunities and delinquency has been stated many times (Fleisher, 1966:116).

The lack of economic and social opportunities for adolescents creates a condition of relative social deprivation associated with a range of maladaptive attitudes and behavior, including psychological problems and delinquency. Thus. a major obstacle facing 'problem' adolescents is that they are given few models and opportunities to which they may dedicate themselves. The disturbed adolescent, by virtue of his problems, is already alienated from society.

In brief, the lack of vocational opportunity as a contributing force is viewed in two ways. Firstly, as an instigating force in the prevalence of psychological problems and delinquency among youth; and secondly, as a force that perpetuates the already existent alienation and self-destructiveness of problem youth.

In considering these forces, recognition must be given to the conditions and structures of our society which are not giving support to the most vulnerable members of the adolescent group. This group is manifesting signs of this failure in increasing psychopathology. Fried supports this contention by stating that the "lesser importance of distinctively psychological factors and the relatively greater significance of social factors in the development of delinquency and deviant adaptation should be considered (Fried, 1966:441).

Therefore it appears that society has a responsibility to devise means by which youth, including the maladjusted, can make significant contributions to their family, society, and themselves. Similarly, treatment programs must devise ways which allow adolescents to assert themselves in productive creations and sanction more constructive ways to satisfy their needs. Methods in which this can be achieved will be addressed in the present study.

2.5 Summary

There exist a number of theoretical perspectives on adolescent development. The developmental theory of adolescence has the most specific application to the present study. Inherent in this theory is the critical stage hypothesis, which views adolescence as the crucial time of life during which specific developmental tasks must be accomplished.

The present study is concerned with the two developmental tasks of identity formation and vocational preparation and choice. Adolescence is viewed as a stage of life and a critical period in which these two developmental tasks must be achieved prior to taking on higher level tasks.

The scope of the area of personality development definitively and theoretically is extremely broad. Operationally identity is used in the present study as being the synthesizing agent and central organizing principle of the personality system that accounts for its unity and continuity. It is also viewed as linking the personality system with the larger social systems in the community.

As part of the process of identity formation, adolescence is a time to close the gap between self-concept and ideal self. This can be accomplished by integrating life goals into the ideal self. Integral to identity development is the establishment of one's place in society. Implicit in this is the change from economic dependence to economic independence which occurs in the transitional stage of adolescence. Vocational planning is the process through which one can close the gap by developing greater congruency between self-concept and ideal self.

In discussing vocational development, the present study has focused specifically on the developmental and self-concept theories. Writers have identified sequential stages in the vocational development process which reflects ideas of what a person at certain ages should be achieving. The basic premise of vocational self-concept theory is that an individual implements his self-concept by choosing a career that will allow for self-expression.

Youth's perception of work supports the contention that vocational preparation and choice is an important developmental task. Although historically the meaning of work has changed, there is nothing to suggest that it is in the process of disappearing. The fulfillment work ethic has replaced the Protestant work ethic.

Studies have been done in the United States that lend support to youth's commitment that work is an essential part of life. As well, studies have supported the notion that work is beneficial to youth.

Work remains a basic tenet of society, however, society contradicts itself by denying productive work to adolescents. In attempting to take on a vocational identity, the adolescent experiences a number of societal constraints. Some of these include adults' devaluation of work as important to youth, technological changes, constantly shifting occupations and extended education. The result of these constraints can cause the psychological effects on youth of powerlessness, instability, and alienation.

When society denies economic opportunity to youth, it creates or perpetuates social and psychological problems in society. Consequently, the social systems that develop and maintain adolescent problems must be understood before adequate preventative and treatment strategies can be worked out. Adolescent treatment will be reviewed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

ADOLESCENT TREATMENT PROGRAMS

From personal experience, and a review of the literature, it is evident that considerable frustration and pessimism exists regarding both the accessibility and viability of services available to the emotionally disturbed adolescent. A number of major obstacles have kept the treatment of adolescents in a 'pioneering' phase. Consequently, the treatment and intervention strategies for this population group remains a cloudy area. Many professionals take a nihilistic point of view and in general outcome studies are noteworthy for verifying the lack of success in providing relevant programs. However, several studies in the literature support the notion that a vocational program is a necessary component in the adolescent treatment process.

3.1 Major Obstacles in Adolescent Treatment

A key aspect of the difficulties experienced by adolescents is the failure of social opportunities and services to meet the needs of youths identified as "problems" (Cloward and Ohlin, 1960). In addressing this issue Spergel (1969: 50) uses the term, "skimming." This refers to the process of organizational avoidance of social problem solutions through not providing services or the provision of inappropriate, inadequate, or irrelevant opportunities and services.

In recent years, considerable interest and resources have been expended on additional services and new opportunities for the prevention and treatment of adolescent emotional disturbance. From personal experience and a review of the literature, many factors have contributed to the limited value of most of these programs.

Firstly, agency administrative functioning precedes service to the people in a number of ways. The wrong clients are served by the wrong programs, insufficient resources are expended for the right programs, and excessive resources for the wrong ones (Fitch, 1967:340). Personnel are inappropriately trained or their expertise is used for the wrong purpose. As well, the contributions of community conditions and organizational arrangements to the problem are ignored.

Secondly, treatment programs have been planned on the assumption that the labels "emotionally disturbed" or "delinquent" denotes a population to be dealt with as though all their members are relatively similar (Kahn, 1963:IX). Correspondingly, treatment is often viewed in punitive terms instead of rehabilitative and preventative terms.

Thirdly, communities have been willing to accept the agency and institution as a planning unit. Communities have reacted spasmodically and irrationally to emotional, behavioral and social problems of adolescents.

Fourthly, political pressures and inappropriate public policies have placed priority on one set of programs at the exclusion of others. As well, they have failed to view the interconnectedness of problem solutions and the need to carry out several kinds of efforts simultaneously or in sequence.

Fifthly, organizational policies and procedures often negate basic goals of the program. Programs are required to show evidence of success at the end of a given time, in order to be in a position to obtain funds for continuing programming. To meet this demand, agencies may recruit the "best" and "most promising" adolescents to serve as clients.

Sixthly, another variant of the failure of opportunities is the provision of irrelevant resources by agencies. Programs are initiated based on the professional's evaluation of needs rather than the population's perception of needs.

The seventh reason involves a process called stigmatization (Spergel, 1969:47). The youth identified as a 'problem' is provided with a tag which negatively modifies his view of himself and reinforces rather than reduces alienation from acceptable values and behaviors (Wilkins, 1965:96). The reinforced self-perception of the youth as 'delinquent' or 'crazy' contributes to his isolation and alienation from other youths and the community.

Lastly, the involvement of youth in self-determination and decision making has been neglected. In the entire process of creating opportunities for 'problem' adolescents the potential of involving them in program determination and execution has been overlooked (Spergel, 1969:51).

The end result of these conditions is that organizations, agencies, and programs become self-binding and encapsulating (Spergel, 1969:234). The concepts, definitions, and programs they create, indeed, may perpetuate the very conditions they were intended to alleviate. They may emphasize issues cen-tral to the achievement of organizational purposes, but are peripheral to the solution of community problems (Kahn, 1963:IX). Evidence suggests that both youths and the community may profit from elimination of many "curative" institutional processes (Sutherland, 1949).

Delinquency and emotional adjustments are often only transitory adolescent phases, especially if not reinforced by inappropriate institutional and adult reactions (Wilkin, 1965:96). Therefore, in any effort to deal with the problems experienced by adolescents, it is essential that the failure of opportunities and services be clearly identified.

3.2 Studies on Treatment Programs for the Emotionally Disturbed Adolescent

Inpatient and residential treatment, which removed the adolescent from his environment, was the most common type of treatment in the past. The philosophy behind this was that the problem lay within the adolescent and not the living environment and social system.

Based on the literature review, the inpatient treatment approach appears to be very ineffectual. Follow-up studies of these programs indicate that the essential skills needed by these adolescents to function competently within society were not being met.

Kivowitz, Forgotson, Goldstein, and Gottlieb (1974:35) did a survey of one hundred and thirty-eight ex-adolescent inpatients six years after discharge. They found only a few suffering from neurotic disorders adjusted over time. Herrera, Lifson, Hartmann, and Soloman (1974:769) did a ten year follow-up on formerly hospitalized adolescents. They found the majority of adolescents diagnosed as schizophrenic; character disorders; and manic depressives were still poorly adjusted. Two-thirds of the ex-patients were in and out of the hospital continually and three had committed suicide. Most of the subjects were functioning one or more years below others of the same age with average ability.

Warren (1965:141) followed up one hundred and fifty-seven patients six or more years after admission to the Adolescent Unit of the Bethlem Royal Hospital. He found that one-third of patients with neurotic disorders or conduct disorders continued to have further disturbance. Girls had a rather better outcome than boys, particularly in the neurotic group. One-half of the conduct disorders did well, but only one-quarter of the psychotic group improved.

Hartmann, Glasser, and Herrera (1969:66) reported on fifty-five patients hospitalized for mental illness during adolescence. They followed up the patients six months, one year, and five years after discharge. The results indicated in general that the adolescent patients five years after treatment were still severely disturbed individuals. These young people, no longer adolescents but in very few cases truly adult, suffered from severe pathology most clearly manifested in social relationships and secondary depression.

Overall, a review of these studies suggests that in-patient treatment of adolescents has had rather dismal results and has not been successful in integrating the adolescent into the community.

Psychotherapy based on the psychoanalytic theory of adolescence is used to treat adolescents. Evans (1976:193) used psycholanalysis and psychotherapy on fifteen emotionally disturbed males. He found that it was not useful unless the patients were very realistic about themselves.

Zellerman (1975:199) believed psychotherapy was not too effective with adolescents due to the lack of knowledge of the adolescent process. Eisenberg (1975:181) concluded that psychotherapy was a possibility with adolescents but it was still in the developmental stages.

From the research, it appears that individual psychotherapy could have a place within the overall treatment program of the emotionally disturbed adolescent, but by itself it is ineffectual in "curing" the adolescent with problems. In the main, psychotherapy treatment evaluated in residential settings and by isolating adolescents from their immediate environment has proven unsuccessful.

Outpatient treatment is a recent trend for helping youths with serious problems. A follow-up study by Flomenhaft (1974:57) four years after the initial study was performed on two groups of troubled adolescents. One group had been treated as outpatients, the other as patients confined to a mental hospital. The study showed that in comparing the two groups, there was a no difference with respect to their current level of achievement of the major developmental tasks of adolescence. Both groups were developmentally behind the norms for their age group.

Pichel (1974:140) conducted a long term follow-up study on sixty adolescent psychiatric outpatients. The goal was to gain some impressions about eventual adult adjustment. In this group of sixty troubled adolescents, twenty percent had histories of childhood problems sufficient to have required attention during childhood. Results indicated that forty-six percent of the sixty reported further difficulty in adulthood necessitating further psychiatric help. Only twenty-one percent of the study group claimed that they had adjusted to society.

There are relatively few studies, however, directed toward the long term follow-up of young patients seen for psychiatric evaluation or treatment in outpatient settings. Most studies have investigated outcomes for hospitalized patients or attempted an assessment of outcome in disorders that are generally associated with poor prognosis, particularly schizophrenia and deliquency.

Community programs have been initiated as an approach to prevent mental illness in adolescents. Many researchers and professionals believe the community would be more effective in dealing with adolescent problems than mental hospitals. These programs recognize the importance of the adolescent's social environment. Focusing on the psycho-social theory of adolescence, they have included social environmental components in their programs. Today many adolescent programs include school, occupational, and recreational therapy.

Family therapy as a viable treatment modality is supported by a number of studies in the literature. Justice and Duncan (1976:365) studied the runaway problem in the United States. They viewed the types of adolescents involved, their families, and underlying factors. Runaway problems decreased when the adolescent's families underwent family therapy. Parents were trained to communicate and make non-authoritarian decisions.

Williams and Lyons (1976:243) studied suicides in adolescents and their families. They found that these families were, in essence, non-functioning. Interaction between members was ineffective, conflict rates were high, and the "family" gave negative reinforcement to the individual. Williams and Lyons felt family therapy would help. Corder and Shor (1974:1) studied family history, environment, and interactional variables in matched groups of suicidal and non-suicidal adolescents. They found that significantly more suicidal adolescents had histories of family disorganization, had been exposed to suicide in the family, had feelings of lack of control over their environment, had lost a love object, and lacked communication with their parents. Corder believed family intervention for adolescents contemplating suicide was essential.

Howes (1976:249) looked at the natural development of family crises. He found that families characterized by rigidity prevented them from moving through the developmental cycle. When families dealt with the crises in ineffective or pathological ways, adolescents in the family often ended up hospitalized.

People that have used family therapy in adolescent programs have found it successful in terms of integrating the emotionally disturbed adolescent back into the community. Ro-Trock (1976:5523) studied the effectiveness of family therapy over individual therapy with hospitalized adolescents. They found that adolescents who underwent family therapy adapted to their community twice as fast as those receiving individual therapy. Family therapy made communication in the family more effective.

Wellisch (1976:3634) also studied the difference between family therapy and individual therapy with hospitalized adolescents in the Texan Research Institute of Mental Services. Similarly, Wellisch found that the use of family therapy increased their functioning in the community and kept the adolescents out of the hospital. Garrigan (1977:83) found family therapy with emotionally disturbed adolescents produced positive effects in the family system, reduced the emotional disturbance in adolescents and, in many cases, improved the parents' marital situation. Hagglund (1974:249) found family therapy more effective than individual therapy with drug users.

Group therapy has also been effective with adolescents. While there is already a great quantity of literature available on the subject of adult and child group treatment, there are only comparatively few concerning group treatment of adolescents. Boenheim (1957:398) noted that the improvement of patients who responded to group therapy consisted of lessening of anxiety and depression, better social contact, a bettering of family relationships and a greater ability to cope with authority. German (1975:1976) found that when group reality therapy was given to institutionalized adolescents, behavior within the institution was rated as more responsible and acceptable by workers. Individual group members were more accepted by peers, however, behavior outside of the institution still required discipline. Roth (1977:776) used transactional analysis with a group of residential emotionally disturbed adolescents and found that it helped reduce anxiety within group members.

Day programs are becoming more prevalent in psychiatric treatment. Day treatment in the form of an organized day hospital for young patients began in the United States only in 1958. The emergence of day psychiatric treatment might best be viewed as a technique designed to fill the need created by gaps in the historical development of the treatment of children and adolescents. Many of these gaps have been discussed previously.

Prior to 1958, children were taken care of either in an outpatient setting or in a residential setting. Donald Bloch (1958) observed that there was no overall plan for emotionally disturbed children. He pointed out that treatment facilities came in isolated and discrete packages. Bloch advocated a flexible network of facilities available to the seriously disturbed child. It was felt these intermediate facilities would hopefully bridge the gap between outpatient clinics and residential treatment centers.

A review of the literature on adolescent treatment illustrates that research suffers from small homogeneous groupings in highly specialized programs, and lack of sound objective diagnosis on which to base treatment and evaluation. Although adolescent treatment programs have been availiable for many years, outcome in general has been poor. Up until the last decade, disturbed adolescents were taken away from their environment and placed in mental hospitals or residential centers. Recently professionals are recognizing that the adolescent's problems are not only within himself/herself, but also within the social environment. Group therapy and family therapy have proven more effective in assisting the adolescent adjust back into the community. However, community adjustment still remains the central issue of concern in adolescent treatment programs.

3.3 Treatment Program Used in the Present Study

Twenty years later in Edmonton, the situation existed that Bloch spoke of in 1958. The lack of differential local treatment centers resulted in the inappropriate treatment of large numbers of adolescents. To circumvent many of the shortcomings of adolescent treatment which have been discussed, the Adolescent Day-Night Treatment Program was initiated in 1978 by the researcher and a psychiatrist. This program has been utilized for the present study.

The objective of the program is to focus on the total individual and the developmental stage which he is in. The program attempts to assist adolescents in overcoming problems which have arisen within themselves, the family, the community and the school.

The program is defined as a 'comprehensive community treatment program.' Comprehensive means that the program provides a full range of diagnostic and evaluative services for the adolescent and family, as well as the essential treatment services, schooling, group therapy, family therapy, and ancillary therapies (such as, occupational and recreational therapy, and the like).

The treatment program is community-based and consists of components within a therapeutic milieu program in the form of an assessment service, day and evening treatment programs, a therapeutic group home, and community liason and education. The adolescents are referred to the program by schools, community agencies, and medical personnel.

Although as previously mentioned, the adolescents have made significant behavioral changes while in the program; the program objective of maximal community integration is not being completely satisfied. After the adolescent is discharged from the program, he often appears to revert to many of his old behavioral patterns. The adolescents evidence difficulty in integrating into the community and finding a meaningful social role in society.

Based on experience and review of the literature, it appears that this problem can be alleviated by adding a vocational component during the transitional period from the program to the community. Ongoing vocational counselling and career development could be the key to the overall success of the adolescent functioning in the community to the maximum of his potential. It would serve as a "bridge" to the community.

In a well-defined social environment the adolescents could slowly and sensitively integrate activities appropriate for their age, developmental stage, and degree of pathology. If they were involved in activities to promote skills, encourage intellectual pursuits, and increase their self-esteem, they would perhaps have the motivation and desire to return to the community and function competently within their potential and limitation.

Other professionals and researchers involved with adolescent treatment have come to similar conclusions which will be elaborated upon in the following section. From the available literature and personal experience, there appears to be a definite need for vocational programming in all adolescent treatment facilities.

3.4 Studies Which Support the Need for Vocational Programs

From a review of the literature, various studies support the need for vocational programs in adolescent treatment. Russell (1973:2A) wanted to determine the success/failure of a residential treatment program in terms of community survival and adaptation. He discovered that the success of the program was determined by external variables. Variables such as the family situation, returning to special or vocational programs, or receiving support were adaptation determinants rather than the program itself.

Olmi, Paguni and Valgimigli (1974:1062) found that therapeutic programs themselves were not enough to maintain the mental health of adolescents. Flomenhaft (1974:57) supported this finding when he found that formally hospitalized adolescents made marginal to poor personal and social adjustments in the family and community over an increased period of time. Both Olmi, et al, and Flomenhaft concluded by saying that an extension of social psychiatry into the community is necessary to help the ex-patients function more adequately in the community.

Herrera, Lifson, Hartmann, and Solomon (1974:769) felt that social psychiatry was not even sufficient to maintain adjustment. They found that those persons adjusting to school or work were often unhappy and bored. Although their occupation was generally consistent with their level of training, it was below their socio-economic background and estimated intellectual capabilities. This affected their functioning socially, personally, and economically. These researchers concluded that vocational services and therapy were important, as vocational competence affected all other areas of adjustment.

Schneider, Levinson, and Weis (1974:177) established an adolescent program in the Illinois State Psychiatric Institute for adolescents lacking social and academic skills. Many of these adolescents had minimal brain dysfunction, were unemployed, and had experienced severe family disorganization. The program stressed school, occupational therapy, and recreational therapy. They realized that the one important component missing from their program was vocational rehabilitation. These socially deprived adolescents needed a forum to discuss future goals and plans to help give them direction in society. They concluded that an adolescent program must focus on the family, school, and vocational planning.

Fenichel (1974:177) worked with children suffering from autism, schizophrenia, and psychosis, who had been barred from all schools as uneducable. He realized that a well planned individualized program focusing on education, social interaction, self-knowledge, and vocational skills was necessary to successfully integrate the child in the community.

Adilman (1973:547) in addressing adolescent residential treatment programs summarized several different philosophies. He concluded by saying that a program needs a school curriculum, recreational and occupational therapy, psychotherapy, and vocational opportunities.

From the foregoing studies, it appears that most researchers feel that a vocational program is a necessary component in an adolescent program. Vocational programming is perceived as the key to successful integration of the adolescent into the community.

3.5 Studies on the Outcome of Vocational Programs

Many studies have been done on the effect of social class and education on job career patterns in youth. Likewise, the psychological traits that go into job satisfaction, the personality influences that affect performance on the job, and the personality variables related to vocational choice have all been studied. But surprisingly little has been done on the influence of vocational programs on personality development in young people, particularly in relation to their mental health.

Shore (1972:315), believing that one of the aspects of identity formation for adolescents was delineating a vocational goal, did a study on the mental health aspects of employment in youth. Shore investigated three large-scale federally funded intervention programs which used employment to bring about change: the New Careers Program, the National Job Corps, and the Neighborhood Youth Corps. These programs had been designed for poor and uneducated youth. Results were positive in that changes in impulse control, achievement, motivation, and internal-external control had occurred. The individual's self-confidence, as well, had improved and vocational orientation skills had aided the youth in searching for and maintaining employment. Therapeutic intervention through jobs had also assisted in dealing with anti-social youth.

Shore and Massimo (1965:1) developed a vocational oriented psycho-therapeutic program for male drop-outs and males with anti-social behavior. The program included remedial education, counselling, job placement, and work. They found significant changes in one's feelings about oneself, control of aggression, attitudes towards authority, and an increase in academic achievement. In a later longitudinal study by Shore (1969:769), the group, five years after being tested, continued to improve by showing better social adjustment and employment records. In conclusion, it was noted that work was important in aiding identity formation and delineated those dimensions of personality functioning that might be affected by work experience. These were: 1) an increase in self-esteem; 2) independence from parents; 3) awareness of different types of work available; 4) opportunity to work with and identify with adults; 5) constructive channelling of excessive energy; 6) resolution of sexual identity and concerns; 7) testing out new skills against reality; 8) assumption of responsibility; and 9) permission to be in an active rather than passive role.

Leonard and Vriend (1975:668) reviewed the ten-year history of the "Development of Career and Guidance Program" (D.C.G.P.) for disadvantaged youth. The program focused on the development of career knowledge, aspirations, choices, planning and adjustment to an ever-changing society. The basis of the program consisted of group and individual counselling techniques, information about different jobs, test results, audio-visual and printed materials on occupations, role playing, career games, career information bulletin boards, field trips to community work sites, speakers and job related activities related to the students' stage of development. They found that the program could develop realistic occupational aspirations and educational occupational aspirations. Students gained a better understanding of themselves and were able to accept their strengths and limitations. Wholesome attitudes in general, which were missing before entering the program, developed during the D.C.G.P. program.

Leonard and Vriend (1975:668) compared the D.C.G.P. group to a control group who had never been exposed to vocational counselling. They found the following results in the D.C.G.P. group: level of occupational-educational aspirations had increased significantly, greater growth in occupational knowledge and planning had occurred, students in the lower grades equalled or excelled in the national achievement test norms, the high school students' occupational values had positively changed, the high school dropout rates had decreased, the students had developed more positive self-concepts and were more motivated. The study involved the two groups of students over an extended time period.

Frederick (1975:1902) studied the psychological effects of a 'planned career development' program on the state of anxiety in adolescent youth at the Columbia Training School in Mississippi. The aims of the program were to prepare youth to cope with continued changes in the work world; to acquaint students with major occupational fields; to develop an understanding of the need for continuing education or training in various career areas; to develop realistic work attitudes; to help develop realistic self-undertstanding; and to give employment information. Frederick gave the Trait Anxiety Scale before and after the six-week career sessions. He found that the career program with delinquent adolescents significantly reduced vocational anxiety. However, it did not alter their life goals. The author attributed this to the length of the program. Frederick felt that if the program were held over an extended period, the youth's life goals would have been altered.

Schwartz (1976:98) found that directing psychiatric patients into employment exerted a strong and beneficial influence on many of them. Work modified the effects of institutionalization and helped prevent regression.

King (1976:7210) studied the differential effects of an intensive vocational orientation on the adjustment of chronic young mental patients. After a nine week program in group vocational counselling, work experience, and basic vocational instructions, there were small positive trends towards personal, social, and vocational adjustments. However, the results were not significant. Again, the author attributed this to the short time factor.

Pannabecker (1975:1928) also did an evaluation of group vocational counselling with hospitalized psychiatric patients by applying the theory of work adjustment. A control group was used. He found the group with vocational counselling had a significantly greater need to utilize abilities creatively, and recognize accomplishments. However, this did not lead to an increased prediction of work adjustment. Each group of patients (psychotic, neurotic, and character disorders) sought different unrealistic levels of work. The author questioned whether this aspect was included in the vocational sessions.

Purvis (1969:64) compared work related needs and abilities of psychiatric patients and a control group by using the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire and the Patient's

Ability Rating. No differences between the needs of the two groups were found, but the work related abilities of the patients were significantly lower than the control group. It was concluded that patients' assets must be determined and focused on in vocational rehabilitation to increase congruence between needs and abilities.

Studies on the use of vocational counselling on culturally deprived adolescents and slow learners have also been done. Tomassetti and Bozzano (1972:149) studied the psycho-social and personality factors in vocational and academic choice of adolescents from culturally deprived families, who had school problems. The jobs they chose were lower than their intellectual abilities. This limited their entrance into the working world. Vocational counselling over an extended period of time improved their situation. Kennedy (1974:27) studied twenty high school reluctant learners with problems other than mental deficiency to see if anything besides specific tasks could lead to a more positive self-concept. He found that after two weeks of vocational evaluation and exploration, the self-concepts of the youth were a little more positive. A longer term vocational program may have led to greater change in self-concept.

Hoffman, Lehman and Zev (1975:283) opened up a community based home for disturbed adolescents who were discharged from a psychiatric hospital. They had problems such as anti-social behavior, suicidal behavior, and drug abuse. The program in the home consisted of a school program, psychotherapy, recreation and vocational services. This program was successful in assisting the adolescents to function in the home. However, community adjustment was not addressed in the study.

Studies on vocational programming which have extended over a prolonged period of time appear to have much more positive results than shorter programs. The few studies which have been reported seem oriented primarily around high risk groups such as the culturally disadvantaged or the anti-social youth. However, these studies provide evidence that vocational programs do bring about significant changes in personality structure, identity formation, and contribute to better personal and social adjustment.

3.6 Vocational Developmental Self-Concept Theory Related to Vocational Programs

One characteristic of Super's theory that distinguishes it from others is the concern for the applicaton of his formulations to vocational programming and counselling. In 1955, Super suggested the existence of a close relationship between emotional and vocational adjustment and counselling (Super, 1955:217). This relationship had long been recognized. However, Super's treatment of the question of counselling people emotionally disturbed and vocationally dysfunctional was new.

Super viewed a certain aspect of self-concept as being open to outside intervention. His perception fits with the client-centered assumption that even seriously disturbed clients have significant capacity for self-direction.

In relating vocational developmental self-concept theory to vocational programming with emotionally disturbed adolescents certain factors are important. The adolescent's ideal self-concept is more closely related than current self-concept to optimal adjustment (Schuldt and Truax, 1968:159). One must take into consideration the adolescent's emotional stress and the need for experimentation and reality testing to increase congruence between 'perceived self' and 'ideal self.' As Perkins states "...adolescents need opportunities to increase sensitivity to and perception of other self-concepts and that progress in narrowing the gap between what they are and what they want to become is crucial to self-development and is a measure of increased self-adjustment" (Perkins, 1957:82).

A vocational program operating within the self-concept framework would attempt to appraise the developmental stage of the adolescent in order to define relevant vocational goals. It would also try to help the adolescent clarify his self-concept, and within the context of his developmental stage, expose him to events which would permit him to move toward implementation of that concept.

Such experimentation and intervention is likely to be most effective in shaping the self-concept during early adolescence. The self-concept grows more stable during later adolescence and maturity and is not as receptive to intervention (Peitrofesa and Splete, 1975:141).

There is some debate as to whether a desirable sequence with which to approach vocational programming with the emotionally disturbed adolescent is known. Traditionally, it has been assumed that if emotional concerns are resolved, other concerns such as vocational, marital, and so on will take precedence. Consequently, Super's suggestion that resolutions of career dysfunction may be instrumental in resolving more general psychological disorders is appealing. Experienced counsellors, however, know that such is not always the case.

Pietrofesa and Splete (1975:14) feel that one must first improve the emotional problems experienced by the adolescent before delving into vocational programming. Steele (1976:358) used Maslow's need achievement-satisfaction theory to examine the contributions of work and employment towards rehabilitating patients. He found that the patients had to satisfy their belongingness and self-esteem needs before benefiting from work. Similarly, Bailey and Stadt (1973) stress the necessity of all the individual's needs being met in treatment, as the motivation to prepare for and assume a role in the world of work is dependent on all needs being met.

Emotionally disturbed adolescents are so maladjusted that they have trouble living with themselves and others. They also would be ineffective and dissatisfied in almost any occupation. Therefore, prior to beginning vocational counselling, the adolescents must first sort out their emotional and identity difficulties. Then they can more realistically consider aptitudes, abilities, and their overall role in society. Thus, vocational prgramming plays a very important role in the overall treatment process over a period of time.

There is a need for more systematic investigation on the effects of vocational programming on the adolescent's mental health, community integration, and adjustment, occupational goals and work adjustment.

A major deficit in the literature is the lack of identification of the vocational needs of the emotionally disturbed adolescent. Vocational programming, in itself, is a broad and nebulous term. Specification is required in order to plan programs with appropriate vocational tasks which relate to the adolescent's developmental needs. With this program deficiency in mind, the present study is directed towards the development of a vocational needs assessment questionnaire.

3.7 Summary

A number of organizational, political, and economic factors have contributed to the lack of efficacy in establishing adequate treatment programs for adolescents. To improve this situation, the elements which need to be confronted are the lack of adequate resources, the low priority of allocation of services to adolescents, organizational reluctance in providing opportunities to adolescents, irrelevant programming, and an unwillingness to permit adolescents to determine their own social needs and programs.

In the last two decades, a wide variety of significant studies have been devoted to investigating the outcomes of a number of adolescent treatment approaches. Follow-up studies on inpatient and outpatient treatment programs for adolescents indicated that a high proportion of those adolescents studied over time exhibited continuing psychiatric problems and poor community adjustment. Treatment programs that place attention on the adolescent's environment and use family therapy and group therapy have proven useful.

Studies have been performed that support the contention that therapeutic programs alone are not enough to effectively integrate the emotionally disturbed adolescent into the community. These studies concluded that vocational services were needed as vocational competence affected all other areas of adjustment. The notion that vocational programs influence attitudinal change, self-esteem, and community adjustment is well documented. However, little systematic research has been done in this area, in particular, with emotionally disturbed adolescents.

Attention to the area of adolescent needs was only vaguely given in the literature. As well, the studies have not delineated the vocational tasks which are most relevant to the needs of problem youth. To this end, the present study addresses this problem through the use of a needs assessment approach, which will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN

In order to establish the assumptions upon which the present study is based, a certain perspective on adolescence has been taken. Adolescence is viewed as a critical stage of the life cycle in which one's identity must be established (Erikson, 1956) and realistic vocational planning accomplished (Havighurst, 1972; Thornburg, 1970). The adolescent requires the opportunities to integrate in relation to the community his identity elements ascribed in childhood with his newly developing concepts of self.

4.1 Assumptions and Aims

The present study takes as its starting point the assumption that preparation for a vocation and vocational choice is a process through which the integration between self and community can occur.

As technological advances create more time between school life and the young person's access to specialized work, the adolescent is trapped in a paradox. In a society which values the 'fulfillment work ethic,' the adolescent is expected to prepare for adult responsibilities. Yet the adolescent is often denied legitimate access to experimentation and new role assignment. Thus the assumption is being put forth that in our rapidly changing society, it is more difficult for adolescents to achieve identity and find a place in the social order.

Consequently, a vocational program would help the adolescent balance who he is by working out a synthesis between the self and the reality of the opportunities and the limitations in society around him. Erikson recognized this when he stated that "...fulfillment for the youth of today, appears to stem mainly from work or vocational fulfillment since that most readily approximates the adult model that the youth must identify with to be successful" (Erikson, 1968:235). In summary, it is assumed that there is a fundamental and inclusive relationship between identity formation and vocational planning.

Adolescent emotional difficulties are a prevalent problem in today's community (Rutter, Graham, Chadwick and Yule, 1926). A basic premise of this thesis is that both the troubled adolescent and the community system which produced him are elements of the social problem being addressed.

The difficulties of adolescents in achieving an identity and finding a place in society are even more evident when one considers emotionally disturbed adolescents. These adolescents by virtue of their problems, are disengaged from the norms, values, and opportunities of the larger culture and society (Spergel, 1969:49).

Following from this, the present research makes the assumption that in helping the emotionally disturbed adolescent, one must be cognizant of their developmental stage and the tasks which must be accomplished to establish a viable role in society. These tasks are identity formation and vocational preparation and choice.

Previous research implies that the long term success of emotionally disturbed adolescents functioning to their optimum in the community after treatment is limited. The literature does suggest, however, that a vocational program is a necessary treatment component to aid in community integration and successful functioning. A basic tenet of the present study is the assumption that a problem inherent in adolescent treatment programs can be related to the failure to give the adolescent a forum to discover self-identity by discussing future vocational goals and plans.

Vocational planning may be the key to successful community integration by giving the adolescent a social role in society. Introducing a vocational component to the existing Adolescent Group Program could provide a 'bridge' between the adolescent and the community.

Many mental health professionals and researchers have proposed that favorable outcome for adolescent treatment depends upon a vocational program. There is, however, no evidence in the literature of research which has specifically addressed the 'felt' needs of adolescents in treatment.

It was postulated that a vocational program would be perceived as a 'need' by the adolescents in treatment as a means towards finding an identity in the community. The present study takes as its concluding point the assumption that it is what the adolescent perceives as his 'felt needs' and the fulfillment of these needs which will influence successful functioning in the community. It is not assumed that an adolescent's conscious perception of needs represents with complete accuracy the identification of discrepancies between the current and desired set of circumstances in their treatment and role in the community. Nevertheless, it would seem that his own perception of these needs, given under suitable conditions, would be the most direct evidence of his actual experience.

In view of this, the overall aim of the present study is program development based on the adolescent's identified needs. The strategy to accomplish this aim was the utilization of a needs assessment with adolescents undergoing treatment in the Adolescent Group Program.

The primary aim of the study is to explore whether the study population does identify a common need for vocational programming. To this end, the needs assessment questionnaire was designed to systematically elicit and identify the perceived vocational and developmental needs of the adolescents in the study population. These identified 'felt needs' were then examined for congruency with the literature's identification of needs in the adolescent population.

The content of the questionnaire specifies various dimensions of knowledge and skills which are applicable to a vocational program. The study aims to utilize these dimensions to identify what vocational activities are perceived as being important by the study population. The results will serve as a basis for a proposed vocational program curriculum. This will formulate an action plan based on the needs which have been identified in the study.

4.2 Operational Definitions

From the position advanced it is necessary to operationally define a number of terms significant to the present study.

Felt needs are defined as a reflection of the relative strength of personal preference for a variety of different activities and interpersonal relatonships (Pietrofesa and Splete, 1975:46).

Needs assessment is defined as an activity through which one identifies community problems and services, and is part of program planning and development of new or altered services (Stewart, 1979:287).

Vocational counselling is a dual process of helping the individual to understand and accept himself, and of helping him to understand and adjust to society; it is both psychological and socio-economic (Super, 1949:2).

A therapeutic vocational program is designed to alter current adjustment patterns and develop ways of making a better social and personal adjustment (Shore, 1972:319).

Emotional disturbance is defined as the inablility to cope with one or all of the various factors within one's environment (Dubos, 1961:84). It represents the failure in sucessfully completing the basic adolescent tasks, i.e. emancipation, skills for economic independence, psychosexual differentiation, and adult self-identity (Fine, 1973:1).

4.3 Methodology

Study Population

The study population of thirty-eight adolescents was taken from the active caseload of adolescents who were attending the Adolescent Group Therapy Program between December, 1981, and January, 1982. These adolescents were involved in psychiatric treatment for emotional and/or behavioral problems. The study population consisted of all the registered cases in the program during this time period. For purposes of statistical analysis, this group was seen as being a random and independent sample of the total population of teenagers in the twelve to eighteen age range, who tend to be referred to the Adolescent Group Therapy Program.

The study population consisted of two groups in respect to their ability to function in the community. The Day group was unable to be maintained in a community school and was involved in a full day treatment program. The Evening group was able to function in a community school and attended treatment two evenings a week. The study population included two groups in order to cross tabulate and evaluate whether there were significant differences in the two groups in terms of demographic variables and community adaptation.

The adolescents in the study were involved in varying stages of the treatment program in respect to length of time and progress in therapy. This was incorporated into the study design to allow for a total evaluation of this population's needs, regardless of the level of involvement in treatment. In addition it permitted examination of differences, according to the involvement in treatment, in identification of areas requiring therapeutic intervention.

Needs Assessment Questionnaire

The needs assessment questionnaire [Appendix 1] was developed to utilize a problem-need approach (McKinley, 1973). It covered two broad aspects of defining needs: need identification in a delineated social area; and an estimation of the relative importance of the identified needs in order to determine priorities for program planning (Siegel, et al., 1978).

The needs assessment instrument was designed to focus on the social area of community integration and adjustment by measuring vocational need identification. The importance of the needs identified was achieved through quantitative rankings of each variable on the questionnaire.

The initial questions in the first section of the instrument were directed toward providing a demographic profile which included the following variables: age, grade, length of time in treatment, marital status of parents, subject's living arrangement, and employment status of each parent.

The second part of this section was intended to provide data on the adolescent's level of community and social involvement and adaptation, which included the following: work history; work related problems; life transition in terms of school and residential changes; length of time at present school; level of academic performance; career decision and appropriate knowledge of education needed; participation and frequency of involvement in sports and leisure time activities; assignment and self-direction in household chores; attainment of allowance; and, number of close friends and frequency of contact with close friends.

The final part of this section was a comparison between the adolescent and his peers. The question was directed towards determining the adolescent's perception of his ability to get along with siblings, peers, parents, and school work. Participants were asked to rate their abilfty on a three-point scale: worse than, about the same, and better than. The questions in this section were modified from

Achenbach's (1979) questionnaire which assesses children's social competencies.

The second section contained items designed specifically to measure the three developmental attitudinal variables related to vocational planning of independence, responsibility, and self-identity, and to give an indication of the subject's self-esteem rating. The quantitative index used to measure these variables was a three-point scale: like me, sometimes like me, and unlike me.

These variables were designed to validate Hershenson's (1968) framework which synthesizes the theories of personality development and vocational development. The questions were aimed at evaluating whether the study population perceived that self-identity was related to the vocational stage of independence, which is goal directed and achieved through an occupation. The self-esteem variables were directed toward measuring self-esteem for the purpose of population description, as well as to assess whether this population of emotionally disturbed adolescents manifested symptoms of low self-esteem (Howard and Kubis, 1964; and Nixon, 1964).

The third section of the study needs assessment questionnaire contained statements that identified the study participants' perceived needs in the area of vocational counselling. Three dimensions were identified and included in the statement as follows: the need for counselling in ability, skill training, and vocational information. Specifically, study participants were asked to rate whether these needs applied to themselves on a two-point rating scale labelled like me and unlike me.

The fourth section of the questionnaire was directed towards collecting specific data on the subject's perception of teenage needs which are not being met by society. Seven statements were given which relate to the two core variables of provision of activities and societal rights. The study population was asked to select and rank three statements according to the level of importance. The purpose was to evaluate the contention that society is not providing youth with goal directed and constructive outlets (Miller, 1974, and Mitchell, 1975).

The fifth section was aimed at determining the extent to which the study participants have been involved with counselling services in their school. The statements identified the following variables: self and abilities, and vocational information.

The sixth section was directed at ascertaining whether the participants desired and valued employment (Herr, 1974 and Neff, 1974). Eight statements were given as reasons for desiring a job. Three statements were selected and rank ordered according to importance. The intent was to give support to other studies in this area (Hammond, 1971; Greenberger and Steinberg, 1980; and Katz, 1973).

In the seventh section, twelve learning methods were listed. The purpose was to establish the study population's perception of the most effective and enjoyable teaching modalities. This information will be used in developing a vocational counselling program plan. The methods were to be rank ordered according to perception of effectiveness.

In addition, this section probed ten problem areas in which the adolescent might require help. These areas focused on vocational and personal needs. Only three areas were to be selected and ranked according to importance of need.

The end of this section posed the question as to whether the participant wanted the Adolescent Group Program to help find a job. This question was presented to give an indication as to whether work experience was perceived as part of the treatment program.

The eighth section attempted to obtain objective data on knowledge and skills in two vocational areas. Six questions were given for evaluative purposes to test correct identification of education and training requirements necessary to obtain specific jobs. The format was to list a job category with three possible responses. The participant was asked to select the response he felt was appropriate.

The next question tested whether the participant was able to correctly read "want ads." Four ads were illustrated followed by questions directly related to information given in the ads.

Limitations of the Study Instrument

Considering the characteristics typical of adolescents population (i.e. confusion over feelings and needs, difficulty verbalizing and being concise, and short attention span), there lies a potential for a lack of vision on the part of the adolescent in understanding or recognizing essential needs. In order to minimize this design limitation, the questionnaire attempted to ask questions about the problem areas in a variety of ways to improve validity of response.

The group of items representing each variable were dispersed throughout the questionnaire to reduce the "halo effect" and to obtain maximum independence of answers. As well, the wording of quantitative and qualitative indices were changed throughout the questionnaire to guard against faked responses, in order to check the internal validity of the questionnaire.

The main aspect of the validity of the needs assessment questionnaire is the question of whether the primary data are themselves valid. This specifically refers to whether the data reflects the subject's direct conscious experience, rather than what he thinks will please the investigator, or be too revealing of himself.

Other typical limitations associated with the use of questionnaires include the impersonality of questions, the limitation of information as respondents cannot be asked to clarify or expand their ideas and the inability to determine if questions were interpreted as intended. As well, the natural biases built into the measurement instrument may or may not be related to the individual's actual circumstances. Since the questionnaire is a newly designed measurement tool, a lack of measurement precision and construct validity is a study limitation. However, the questionnaire was pretested twice on a small study group to minimize this limitation.

Pretests of Needs Assessment Questionnaire

In June of 1981, six adolescents who had similar characteristics to those of the study population were involved in the initial pretest of the Needs Assessment Questionnaire. Evaluation of the study instrument was aimed at the length of time to complete the questionnaire, comprehensiveness and clarity of the questions, and relevance and usefulness of data collected.

The questionnaire was administered by the researcher in a classroom setting. The pretest evaluation indicated that the measures on community and social involvement and adaptation were not providing useful data. On the final revision of the questionnaire, major changes were made in the statements in this area. Minor alterations were made in the wording of some questions to increase clarity.

The sample given the pretest included adolescents who had a range of difficulties which could make the completion of the questionnaire problematic. The sample included adolescents who were depressed, hyperactive, dull intellectually, and suspicious. Although the time to complete the questionnaire was in the range of twenty to sixty minutes, the range of time was felt to be within acceptable limits.

Following the initial evaluation of the pre-test, it became evident that the inclusion of objective data which correlated with the subjective data would provide a useful validity measure. Thus the revision of the questionnaire for the second pre-test included a section of vocational questions in test format.

The second pretest of the study instrument was performed in October, 1981. Again, another group of six adolescents completed the questionnaire. The second revision of the questionnaire eliminated most of the objective items related to vocational knowledge. The responses were too ambiguous and difficult to code. Other than this revision, the finalized needs assessment questionnaire was identical to the one used in the second pretest.

Administration of Final Needs Assessment Questionnaire

In carrying out the study, thirty-eight adolescents who were attending the Adolescent Program between December, 1981, and January, 1982, were given the questionnaire with uniform verbal instructions in the Program's classroom setting. Precautions taken to ensure validity of responses included a standard format of telling the subjects the purpose of the study, the confidentiality of their responses, and emphasizing that the value of the data depended on their cooperation and truthfulness.

In order to maximize the consistency of the verbal instructions and questions related to comprehension, the study investigator administered the instrument and supervised the carrying out of the study.

Adolescents are reluctant to be open and share their feelings. In order to ensure honesty and full self-expression, the investigator, who was also the primary therapist involved with the participants in treatment, provided the instructions as to the purpose and design of the questionnaire. It was felt that contact with a person whom the adolescents knew and trusted would maximize rapport and their honesty in completing the questionnaire.

The participants were divided into random groupings of six to carry out the study. This was done due to the long time frame in completing the questionnaire and to induce positive peer pressure to cooperate with the study.

4.4 Measurement

Frequency distributions were prepared for all variables in the needs assessment questionnaire. Questionnaire sections in which specific variables were measured by a number of responses were collapsed. It was felt that grouping the variables would heighten validity by testing more than one measure. Although it was recognized that other factors involved in the groupings could weaken the significance of the measures.

A validity test as to whether the questions were measuring what was intended was not performed. A needs assessment is a subjective measure, not an objective measure. Therefore it was felt that validity measurement was not necessary, and in any case, would require costly replications.

For population description purposes, a cross-tabulation was performed to test for differences between the Day and Evening groups included in the study population. The intent was to evaluate whether the Day group versus the Evening group revealed significant differences, specifically in backgrounds according to demographics and commumity functioning variables (section one of the questionnaire). Responses to the statements consisted of both nominal and ordinal values.

The Pearson Chi Square was the statistical test used for nominal values. This test was chosen as best testing differences in distribution across categories. As well, the present study fulfilled the following assumptions for the Chi square. The assumptions made were that the subjects were randomly and independently selected, the groups were independent and each observation qualified for only one category.

The statistical question asked was whether the Day and Evening groups differed significantly in the relative distribution of responses among different categories. The null hypothesis (Ho) was that in the population the two groups did not differ in their relative frequency distributions of responses among categories. The alternative hypothesis (Hi) was that the groups did differ (non-directional).

Small values of chi-square indicated the absence of a relationship betwen sub-groups and the variables between subgroups were statistically independent and significant. Thus, the null hypothesis would be rejected. Conversely, a large chi-square indicated that a systematic relationship existed between the variables and the null hypothesis would be accepted. A significance level of 0.5 was used.

The two-tail t-test for independent groups was used for ordinal values. The t-test was chosen based on the size of the groups and the need to test for homogeneity of variance given the possibility of differences within the two groups. It was assumed that the groups used in the study were representative of the larger population. Homogeneity of variance was tested for and found not to be a problem. The two-tailed t-test was used as there was no hypothesis as to which direction the differences should come out.

The two-tailed t-test was used based on the present study's fulfillment of the following assumptions. The assumptions made were that the subjects were randomly and independently sampled, that the two groups of measurements were independent of one another, that there was homogeneity of variance, and that the sample mean was normally distributed.

The statistical question being asked was whether or not the mean differences of response on specified variables between the Day and Evening groups were significant enough to indicate a true difference between the two groups. The null hypothesis (Ho) was that the Day and Evening groups' mean responses on specified variables were the same. The alternative hypothesis (Hi) was that the Day and Evening groups' mean responses on specified variables were not the same (non-directional). A significance level of .05 was used.

In order to compute the t value for the pair of group means, the two groups were sampled by computing means and variances based on group sizes. From the pair of group variance, the pooled variance was computed. A critical value of t was computed.

If the observed t was greater than or equal to the critical t, the null hypothesis was rejected. Conversely, if the observed t was less than the critical t, the null hypothesis was accepted.

4.5 Study Propositions

1. The majority of the study population desire to work and perceive work experience as a beneficial part of their treatment.
2. The majority of the study population will feel the need to acquire specific vocational skills and information.
3. The study data will confirm the professional literature's contention that there is a relationship between the developmental needs of adolescence and vocational planning.
4. The majority of the study population will not have received counselling of a vocational nature at school.
5. The Evening program sample group will show higher community and social adaptation than the Day sample group.
6. Study participants who had been in the treatment for more than six months will place more importance on finding a job than on help for personal concerns.

CHAPTER FIVE

STATEMENT OF RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Prior to discussing the results of this exploratory study which investigated the vocational needs of adolescents, it is appropriate to describe the demographic characteristics of the study population. The total adolescent study population consisted of 38 young people ranging in age from 11 to 18 years, and there were a total of 20 males and 18 females participating in both Day and Evening programs. There were 20 adolescents in the Day group and 18 in the Evening group. Since the following analysis focuses on the differences between the two groups (Day and Evening Program), demographic background characteristics will be discussed according to these two program populations.

5.1 Description of Adolescent Study Group

Adolescents in the Evening Program were somewhat older than those in the Day Program. As shown in Table 5.1, the mean ages in years of the Evening Program adolescents and the Day Program adolecents were 14.5 and 13.7 respectively. There was a statistically significant greater proportion of males in the Evening group compared to the Day group (72.2 percent males compared to 35.0 percent males). The Evening

TABLE 5.1

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE DAY PROGRAM AND EVENING PROGRAM STUDY GROUPS

Characteristics	Day Program (N=20)	Evening Program (N=18)
Mean Age:	13.7	14.5
Sex:		
Male	35.0%	72.2% *
Female	65.0%	27.8%
Mean Grade:	8.4	9.0
Months in Program:		
Less than 2	65.0%	50.0%
2 to 6	10.0%	22.2%
More than 6	25.0%	27.8%
Marital Status of Parents:		
Married	30.0%	77.8% **
Common-law	15.0%	----
Divorced	30.0%	16.6%
Widowed	10.0%	----
Separated	15.0%	5.6%
Living Arrangements:		
Both Parents	35.0%	72.2%
One Parent	50.0%	16.7%
Group Home Parents	10.0%	----
Parent and Step-Parent	----	5.6%
Residence	----	5.5%
Others	5.0%	----
Average Number of Moves in Past 5 Years:	2.2	1.2

Table entries represent adjusted frequencies unless otherwise indicated

*Significant at the .05 level chi-square (2o of freedom)

**Significant at the .05 level chi square (4o of freedom)

Program is a preventative program and problem identification has been made at an early stage. Male adolescents compared to female adolescents frequently externalize their emotional conflicts by acting out aggressively towards the community, resulting in early problem detection and intervention. This may account for the significant difference in male representation between groups.

There was no great difference in the mean grade level between the two groups (8.4 versus 9.0). The Day Program adolescents , however, were likely to have been active in the program for a shorter duration than the Evening Program adolescents (65 percent versus 50 percent had been in the program less than two months). Because the adolescents in the Evening Program have fewer emotional difficulties, their involvement in treatment on a weekly basis is much less. The total duration of their treatment program, however, tends to be longer than the Day Program. Thus, the shorter treatment stay and greater client turnover in the Day Program could account for this difference between groups.

Evening Program adolescents indicated more family stability than the Day Program adolescents, in that 78 percent had intact families and 72.2 percent lived with both parents. Between the two study groups, the parents' marital status was statistically significant. The higher incidence of divorce, living with a single parental role model, and living with a step-parent in the Day group, could be viewed as contributing factors to this group's severity of emotional disturbance. The greater frequency of mobility in the Day group (2.2 times moved in the past five years) may be the result of the higher incidence of family breakdown in this group.

Table 5.2, showing the work history of the two groups, indicates higher familial employment in the Evening Group. One hundred percent of Evening Program fathers were employed, while 75 percent of Day Program fathers were employed. The Evening Program adolescents' previous employment was 77.8 percent versus 70.0 percent in the Day group. The 25 percent rate of fathers' unemployment in the Day group is not surprising when considered as a contributing factor, or the result of the higher incidence of marital breakdown, mobility, and severity of emotional disturbance in this group. As well, the Evening group adolescents' higher incidence of past employment could be seen to indicate greater achievement and community adjustment in this group.

The mothers of the Day Program adolescents have a higher incidence of employment (68.4 percent versus 61.1 percent). This is to be expected when related to the higher rate of divorce, single-parenting, and father's unemployment in this group.

In order to indicate the status of occupations for parents and the adolescents in the study population, the Blishen socioeconomic index for occupations in Canada

TABLE 5.2

WORK HISTORY OF DAY PROGRAM AND EVENING PROGRAM STUDY GROUPS

Work Variables	Day Program (N=20)	Evening Program (N=18)
% Adolescents with father employed	75.0%	100.0%
% Adolescents with mother employed	68.4%	61.1%
% Adolescents previously employed	70.0%	77.8%
Father's Occupational Status:		
Mean Blishen Socioeconomic Score	41.4	45.8
Mean Blishen Occupational Class	4	4
Mother's Occupational Status:		
Mean Blishen Socioeconomic Score	45.6	36.2
Mean Blishen Occupational Class	4	5
Adolescent Occupational Status:		
Mean Blishen Socioeconomic Score	28.2	26.9
Mean Blishen Occupational Class	6	6
Mean Number of Jobs	1.6	1.6
Average Mean Months At Job	3.9	4.2
Total Mean Months At Job	6.8	5.2

*Table entries represent adjusted frequencies unless otherwise indicated

(Blishen and McRoberts, 1976) was utilized. This scale has been validated as a research tool in Canada and the United States since 1958. The Blishen scale is based on three key variables: employment income, education, and prestige. Based on these three variables, socioeconomic scores have been assigned to four hundred and eighty occupational titles listed in the Statistics Canada 1971 manual. The final step in the construction of the scale was the dividing of the socioeconomic scores into six class intervals. The six occupational classes from highest status to lowest status presented with their socioeconomic score range are shown on Table 5.3.

Table 5.3

Blishen Socioeconomic Scale

Classes	Scores
1	70+
2	60-69
3	50-59
4	40-49
5	30-39
6	30-

Table 5.2 shows a similarity between groups on the mean Blishen occupational class for fathers and adolescents. The similarity between the two groups of fathers was not expected, based on the differences in fathers' employment status and mobility which were previously discussed. Taking

into acount these variables, it would be anticipated that the Evening Program fathers would have higher occupational status than the Day group. However, based on this similarity of occupational status between groups one could make the inference that the study population tends to come from the lower end of the middle socioeconomic strata of society.

As shown in Table 5.2, it is not surprising that mothers of the adolescents in the Day Program would have higher occupational class than Evening Program mothers, due to their greater participation in the work force. As well, there is a higher incidence of single parent families in this group which probably has encouraged the mothers to return to school and upgrade their job status. The similarity of job status between adolescents in both groups and the low status of the adolescents' occupation (class 6) is in keeping with the unavailability of skilled jobs for teenagers in society.

There is no significant differences between groups when viewing the number of jobs, average months and total months working. The Evening Program adolescents have held a job for slightly longer than the Day Program adolescents (4.2 mean months versus 3.9 mean months). This could indicate a slightly higher ability of the Evening group in perseverence and commitment. As well, the Evening adolescents are older than the Day adolescents (14.5 versus 13.7 years), which could indicate more experience and opportunities. On the other hand, the Day group overall have worked a longer period of time (6.8 months versus 5.2 months). This could indicate that in this group there is a greater desire or financial need to work.

Identified work problems for both groups were fewer than anticipated. Table 5.4 shows that Day Program adolescents identified a higher mean number of problems than the Evening Program adolescents (2.2 versus 1.6). This is in keeping with the Day group's shorter average length of stay at a job, and their severity of emotional difficulties. When viewing the frequency of problem identification, there is a similarity between groups in the three highest percentiles. Identified work problems with the three highest proportionate ratings for the Day group were as follows: not getting enough money (71.4 percent), being bored (64.3 percent), and losing one's temper (50 percent). The three highest proportionate ratings for the Evening subgroup were being bored (33 percent); missing work, losing one's temper, disliking orders, not getting enough money (25 percent); and being late (23.1 percent). The common problems between groups were not getting enough money, being bored, and losing one's temper.

Given the nature of jobs available to teenagers, the first two identified job problems are to be expected. There was a statistically significant difference between groups in the percentage identifying lack of monetary reward for the job (71.4 percent versus 25.0 percent). The higher propor-

TABLE 5.4

WORK PROBLEMS IDENTIFIED BY DAY PROGRAM AND EVENING PROGRAM STUDY GROUPS

Work Problems	N	Day Program	N	Evening Program
Losing Temper	7	50.0%	3	25.0%
Being Late	3	21.4%	3	23.1%
Being Fired	3	21.4%	2	15.4%
Missing Work	4	28.6%	3	25.0%
Boredom	9	64.3%	4	33.3%
Job Too Difficult	1	7.1%	2	16.7%
Trouble with Boss	1	7.1%	1	8.3%
Trouble with Co-workers	1	7.1%	1	8.3%
Too Much Pressure	5	35.7%	2	16.7%
Dislike Orders	4	28.6%	3	25.0%
Not Enough Money	10	71.4%	3	25.0% *
Stealing	2	14.3%	1	8.3%
Breaking Rules	2	14.3%	0	----
Others	2	14.3%	1	8.3%
Total Job Problems:				
Mean	N=	2.2	N=	1.6

Table Entries represent adjusted frequencies
unless otherwise indicated
*Significant at the .05 level chi-square (1o of freedom)

tionate rating by the Day group may reflect their more extreme level of deprivation in needing a concrete reward for self-gratification. Similarly, there is a fairly high difference in the proportionate rating between groups in the area of boredom at work (64.3 percent versus 33.3 percent). The Day Program's higher rating may reflect their greater need for self-satisfaction and meaningfulness in a job. The problem of losing one's temper identified by both groups can be viewed as a symptom of the emotional instability inherent in this population. Again a higher proportion of the Day Program adolescents have identified loss of temper as a problem. The inference could be made that this supports the existence of more severe emotional disturbance in the Day group in comparison with the Evening group.

Table 5.5 indicates that the Day Program adolescents have attended more schools which is in keeping with their families' greater mobility. The difference in present attendance at school can be accounted for by the registration of the Day group at the Program's school, while 11.1 percent of the Evening group were working. There was a statistically significant difference between the groups in the number of months attended at the adolescent's present school (5.4 months in the Day group versus 25.9 months in the Evening group). This was to be expected as the Day Program adolescents transfer to the Program school when they enter treatment, while the Evening Program adolescents maintain attendence at their community school

TABLE 5.5

SCHOOL HISTORY OF DAY PROGRAM AND EVENING PROGRAM STUDY GROUPS

School Variables	Day Program (N=20)	Evening Program (N=18)
Mean Number of Schools Attended	4.8	3.9
% attending school	100.0 %	88.9 %
Mean number of months at present school	5.4	25.9 *
% achieving grade levels at school:		
Below Average	15.0 %	27.8 %
Average	70.0 %	38.9 %
Above Average	15.0 %	33.3 %

Table entries represent adjusted frequencies
unless otherwise indicated
*Significant at the .05 level t-test

during treatment.

A higher proportion of the Day Program adolescents had achieved an average to above average grade level (85 percent versus 72.2 percent). Conversely, a greater proportion of the Evening Program adolescents had achieved an above average grade level (33.3 percent versus 15.0 percent), as well as a below average grade level (27.8 percent versus 15.0 percent). The higher proportion of Evening Program adolescents having below average educational achievement may be the result of their having to function in a regular classroom while working on their emotional problems. Conversely, the proportion of the Evening Program adolescents' greater above average achievement could reflect their higher academic ability.

Table 5.6, showing the vocational plans for the Day and Evening groups, indicates that a higher proportion of the Day Program adolescents have focused on a career plan. This is the reverse of what was expected, although these results may indicate that the Day group's inability to function in the educational system has encouraged them to view work as an alternative.

There was a statistically significant difference between groups in the Blishen Occupational class of the adolecent's desired job. This difference is not surprising considering the larger proportion of males in the Evening group and the presence in their homes of an employed father

TABLE 5.6

VOCATIONAL PLANS OF DAY PROGRAM AND EVENING PROGRAM STUDY GROUPS

Vocational Variables	Day Program	Evening Program
Have a Career Plan	84.2 %	50.0 %
Mean Blishen Socio-Economic Job Score	51.2	81.3
Mean Blishen Occupational Score	3	1 *
Education Required for Career:		
High School	43.8 %	50.0 %
Vocational School	31.3 %	12.5 %
Apprenticeship	31.3 %	12.5 %
Grade 10	43.8 %	----
University	25.0 %	62.5 %
Job Experience	43.8 %	12.5 %
Other	7.1 %	12.5 %
Appropriateness of Education:		
Exact	31.2 %	87.5 %
Partially	31.3 %	12.5 % **
Not at all	37.5 %	----

Table entries represent adjusted frequencies unless otherwise indicated

*Significant at the .05 level chi-square (1o of freedom)

**Significant at the .05 level chi-square (2o of freedom) role model. As well, the tendency for a greater proportion of Evening Program adolescents to achieve above average marks could be related to higher occupational choice. The difference between groups could, as well, be related to the greater severity of emotional problems in the Day group and their tendency to underrate their abilities. This would support Patterson's (1957:379) contention that the emotionally disturbed have difficulty making occupational choices which equal their level of potential. Congruent with the Evening group's higher vocational aspirations, a greater percentage have identified University as the education required to achieve their job goal (62.5 versus 25.0 percent). Comparing the Day and Evening groups, the Day group had statistically significant lesser awareness of the appropriate education required for their job goal (31.2 percent versus 87.5 percent). This result is supportive of Borow's (1968) view that the emotionally disturbed adolescent has a poor understanding of the preparatory steps leading to their vocational goal.

It was proposed in this research that significant differences in community and social adaptation would be evident between the Day and Evening groups. As shown in Tables 5.7, 5.8, and 5.9, differences between groups in community were not statistically significant. This could be due to the inability of the questions to accurately assess adaptation. However, in viewing these tables, a few dif-

TABLE 5.7

ACTIVITY INVOLVEMENT OF DAY PROGRAM AND EVENING PROGRAM STUDY GROUPS

Activity Involvement	Day Program (N=20)	Evening Program (N=18)
Involved in Sports:		
Yes	80.0 %	66.7 %
No	20.0 %	33.3 %
Frequency Involved in Sports:		
Once a Day	18.8 %	38.7 %
Once a Week	62.5 %	30.8 %
Once a Month	12.5 %	0.0 %
Once a Year	6.2 %	30.8 %
Involved in Activities:		
Yes	90.0 %	100.0 %
No	10.0 %	0.0 %
Frequency Involved in Activities:		
Once a Day	33.3 %	55.6 %
Once a Week	44.4 %	33.2 %
Once a Month	16.7 %	5.6 %
Few Times a Year	5.6 %	5.6 %
Involved in Chores:		
Yes	90.0 %	100.0 %
No	10.0 %	0.0 %
Parents Remind to Do Chores:		
Yes	60.0 %	66.7 %
No	40.0 %	33.3 %
Get Allowance:		
Yes	55.0 %	61.1 %
No	45.0 %	38.9 %

Table entries represent adjusted frequency percentage unless otherwise indicated

TABLE 5.8

FRIENDSHIP PATTERNS
OF DAY PROGRAM AND EVENING PROGRAM
STUDY GROUPS

Friendship Patterns	Day Program (N=20)	Evening Program (N=18)
Number of Close Friends:		
None	0.0 %	11.1 %
One	15.0 %	11.1 %
Two or Three	45.0 %	16.7 %
Four or More	40.0 %	61.1 %
Times a Week Involved with Friends:		
Less Than One	30.0 %	11.8 %
One or Two	10.0 %	29.4 %
Three or More	60.0 %	58.8 %

Table entries represent adjusted frequency percentage unless otherwise indicated

TABLE 5.9

SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT OF DAY PROGRAM AND EVENING PROGRAM STUDY GROUPS

Social Variables	Day Program (N=20)	Evening Program (N=18)
Compared with Other Teenagers, how well do you get along with		
Brothers and Sisters:		
Worse than	16.7 %	17.6 %
Same	66.7 %	64.7 %
Better than	16.7 %	17.6 %
Peers:		
Worse than	20.0 %	11.1 %
Same	60.0 %	72.2 %
Better than	20.0 %	16.7 %
Parents:		
Worse than	20.0 %	11.1 %
Same	65.0 %	61.1 %
Better than	15.0 %	27.8 %
School, Chores, or Job:		
Worse than	20.0 %	27.8 %
Same	70.0 %	61.1 %
Better than	10.0 %	11.1 %
Total Adjustment Mean	7.0	7.1
(Above Average = 7.8) (Average = 8) (Below Average = <8)		
Range	4 - 8	5 - 8

Table entries represent adjusted frequency percentage unless otherwise indicated

ferences between groups are notable and worthy of discussion.

The Day Program adolescents have a greater tendency to be involved in sports and activities once a week, while the Evening Program adolescents have a higher tendency to be involved on a daily basis. The Day group's higher frequency of not getting an allowance could be related to their desire to get more money at a job. In Table 5.9, the majority of both groups, when comparing themselves with other teenagers, perceive that their relationships with siblings, peers, and parents are normal. However, the number of adolescents perceiving their relationships as worse than other teenagers was significant enough in both groups to give a below average level of total adjustment. As would be expected, considering the greater incidence of marital breakdown, the Day group had a higher tendency to have difficulties with parents (20.0 versus 11.1 percent).

Although some variables as indicated in the preceding tables were found to be statistically significant using chi-square or t-tests at the .05 level between Day and Evening groups, it was felt that differences between groups were not substantively important other than for descriptive purposes. Therefore, the following needs assessment variables were collapsed to describe the total population.

5.2 Outcome Results Related To Vocational Needs

The purpose of the present study was to systematically examine the study population's perceived self-reported vocational needs and to relate these needs to vocational programming. Specifically, the initial part of the needs assessment was directed towards ascertaining the developmental needs of the study population, as well as to verify whether this population perceived a relationship between their developmental needs and vocational planning.

Table 5.10 indicates that in all four categories of developmental needs, the mean scores for 'like me' ratings all fell within the range of significance. These results support the professional literature's contention that there is a relationship between the developmental needs of adolescents and vocational planning. The results also support Neff's (1968:141) findings that youth desire work to feel responsible, to maintain self-esteem, and to acquire an identity. As well, Table 5.10 indicates that the need to find self-identity and improve self-esteem have the highest number of points within the range of significance. This could be interpreted to mean that the study population's greatest needs are in the area of improving self-esteem and developing a self-identity through vocational planning. This supports Howard and Kubis (1964) and Nixon's (1964) belief that there is a relationship between weak identities,

TABLE 5.10

SURVEY OF DEVELOPMENTAL NEEDS OF STUDY POPULATION

Developmental Needs	Score Mean	Score Range	*Like me Range
Need for Independence	9.9	6 - 18	< 12
Need to Find Self-Identity	7.0	5 - 1	< 10
Need to Show Responsibility	11.4	6 - 18	< 12
Need to Improve Self-Esteem	9.6	7 - 21	< 14

*Mean is significant if it falls within the 'like me' range.

low self-esteem, and manifestations of emotional ill health. This is in keeping with Hershenson's (1968) belief that adolescents perceive a relationship between identity and vocational attainment.

Table 5.11, providing information on the survey of vocational needs, illustrates that twenty-two out of the total of twenty-seven listed needs were perceived by fifty percent and over of the study population as being "felt needs." These findings support the study's proposition that this group does indeed feel the need to acquire specific vocational skills and knowledge.

Table 5.12 indicates that the vocational need categories of abilities, skill training, and information, are all areas which should be included in a vocational program. These findings will be discussed later in the chapter when they are incorporated into a proposed vocational program plan.

The results shown in Table 5.13 support the study's proposition that the majority of the study population have not been involved in vocational counselling in their community school. It was suspected due to this population's emotional and school problems that they would have received personal counselling at school. Table 5.13 indicates that the mean score of no personal counselling past involvement (10.2) is within range of significance (< 12). Thus, the majority of the study population have not been involved in self-directed counselling at school.

TABLE 5.11

SURVEY OF VOCATIONAL NEEDS OF TOTAL STUDY POPULATION

	Self Ratings	
Perceived Vocational Needs	Like Me	Unlike Me
1. Stop wasting time	68.4 %	31.6 %
2. Feel less bored	55.3 %	44.7 %
3. Know how smart	55.3 %	44.7 %
4. Know what good at	68.4 %	31.6 %
5. Know what job good at	71.1 %	28.9 %
6. Learn to make decisions	68.4 %	31.6 %
7. Find kind of work to earn money	84.2 %	15.8 %
8. Work at a job to be responsible	76.3 %	23.7 %
9. Know how to read a want ad	42.1 %	57.9 %
10. Know how to fill in a job application	50.0 %	50.0 %
11. Know how to act at a job interview	44.7 %	55.3 %
12. Learn how to take orders	55.3 %	44.7 %
13. Improve study habits	78.9 %	21.1 %
14. Know how to find a job	55.3 %	44.7 %
15. Be ready for a job after high school	73.7 %	26.3 %
16. Learn to follow rules	44.7 %	55.3 %
17. Know where to get involved in activities	39.5 %	60.5 %
18. Information about courses and credits	44.7 %	55.3 %
19. Information about jobs	73.7 %	26.3 %
20. Know skills for different jobs	73.7 %	26.3 %
21. Make plans for job and education after high school	71.1 %	28.9 %
22. Know subjects to take to get a job	73.7 %	26.3 %
23. Know if University, Nait, or training is needed for job plan	55.3 %	44.7 %
24. Talk to people who work at different jobs	68.4 %	31.6 %
25. Learn courses needed to get into University, etc.	63.2 %	36.8 %
26. Plan courses for next semester	60.5 %	39.5 %
27. Know subjects to take to help get a job	60.5 %	39.5 %

Table entries represent adjusted percentage frequencies

TABLE 5.12

CATEGORIES OF VOCATIONAL NEEDS OF STUDY POPULATION

Vocational Needs Categories	Score Mean	Score Range	Like Me Range
Need to know ABILITIES	10.52	8-16	< 12
Need to learn SKILLS	11.55	8-16	< 12
Need to find INFORMATION	15.15	11-22	< 16.5

*Mean is significant if it falls within the "like me" range

TABLE 5.13

SURVEY OF PAST COUNSELLING INVOLVEMENT OF TOTAL STUDY POPULATION

No Past Involvement in Counselling Areas	Score Mean	Score Range	Like Me Range
Self and Abilities	10.2	6-18	< 12
Vocational Information	19.7	12-36	< 24

*Mean is significant if if falls within the "like me" range

Looking at Table 5.14, the study participants' highest proportionate ratings on areas in which society should change according to degree of importance were to provide jobs (52.4 percent), lower the drinking age (61.5 percent), and provide recreation (53.8 percent).

The study population's perception that society has a responsibility to provide them with jobs and recreation could be interpreted to indicate that society is falling short of its obligation in these areas, or that the adolescents have unrealistic expectations of society. Regardless, there is a discrepancy between what youth expect and what society is providing. This would support Miller (1974:110) and Mitchell's (1975:161) suggestion that society is not providing goal directed and constructive outlets for adolescents.

The population's perception that the drinking age should be lower could be interpreted as both a positive or negative indicator. It could suggest that adolescents see an association between the right to drink and adult-like status in society. On the other hand, it could indicate that this population is involved in or desires to be involved in legalized alcohol consumption.

The area of society having more respect for teenagers was also rated by a high proportion of the participants. This could be seen to support the belief that society, by delaying youth's participation in work, does not recognize youth as being important and valuable (Ficks, 1975:91; Frie

TABLE 5.14

PROPORTIONATE RATINGS OF SOCIETAL NEEDS

Society Should:	Ratings of Importance			N
	1	2	3	
Provide Jobs	52.4%	33.3%	14.3%	21
Lower the Drinking Age	15.4%	61.5%	23.1%	13
Lower the age to live on own	28.6%	35.7%	35.7%	14
Pay for rent to move out	25.0%	50.0%	25.0%	8
Have work experience at school	35.3%	29.4%	35.3%	17
Provide recreation	23.1%	23.1%	53.8%	13
Have more respect for teenagers	35.7%	21.4%	42.9%	28

*Table entries represent adjusted frequency percentages

denberg, 1959; and Rogers, 1977:137).

In response to the question, "Do you want a job?" ninety-seven percent of the study population responded in the affirmative. This high proportion supports the present study's proposition that this group of adolescents desires to work.

As well, from this high positive response, one could make the inference that this supports the notion that work remains a major tenet of North American culture (Katz, 1973:99), and youth still value work (Herr, 1974:22; Neff, 1974:156).

Table 5.15 indicates the results of an exploration of reasons for the study participants' desire to work. Reasons rated by the majority of the study group were to show parents responsible behavior, to earn money, to be like friends, to prove that one can be good at something, to learn something new, and to feel less bored. These results lend support to a number of studies which have researched this area.

Similar to Hammond's (1971:55) findings in general, work was seen to contribute to areas of self-fulfillment, although money was identified as an important reasons for working. Findings by Greenberger and Steinberg (1980:46), which are supported by the present study results are that youth desire work to learn something new and to prove that they can be good at something. The indication that the study participants desire to work to be like their friends

TABLE 5.15

PROPORTIONATE RATINGS ON REASONS FOR WANTING A JOB

Reasons For Wanting A Job	Ratings of Importance 1	2	3	N
Show parents responsible behavior	57.1 %	33.3 %	9.5 %	21
Feel less bored	16.7 %	33.3 %	50.0 %	6
Earn money	50.0 %	33.3 %	16.7 %	30
Be less dependent	23.1 %	30.8 %	46.2 %	13
Prove can be good at something	12.5 %	25.0 %	62.5 %	16
Be like friends	25.0 %	50.0 %	25.0 %	4
Feel like an adult	25.0 %	33.3 %	41.7 %	12
Learn something new	8.3 %	41.7 %	50.0 %	12

*Table entries represent adjusted frequency percentages

may suggest that work still remains a cultural norm for teenagers. Overall, the findings in Table 5.15, with the exception of work to earn money and to be like peers, are in support of the belief that the prevalent work ethic is one of self-fulfillment and self-actualization (Neff, 1974:156; Katz, 1973:99; Herr, 1974:10; and Light and Laufer, 1975:93).

For purposes of future program planning, study participants were asked to rate learning methods. The majority of the study identified experience, discussion groups, books and pamphlets, role playing, interest and ability question naires, lectures, bulletin boards, and field trips as being the most useful learning methods. In general, Table 5.16 indicates that self-exploration and experiential methods of learning are viewed as the most effective. These results will be utilized later in the present chapter in formulating a vocational program.

Results on problem areas in need of help shown in Table 5.17 indicate a widespread perception of need. Areas of schoolwork, future education plans, peers, home and family, accommodation, finding a job, school plans, and recreation were identified as problem areas by the majority of the study group. These results could be interpreted as lending support to Bailey and Stadt's (1973) belief that it is necessary to meet all the individual's range of needs in treatment. When viewing the study participants' problem rankings according to length of stay in treatment, shown in

TABLE 5.16

PROPORTIONATE RATINGS ON BEST LEARNING METHODS

Learning Methods	Ratings of Importance			N
	1	2	3	
Discussion Groups	54.5 %	36.4 %	9.1 %	11
Books and Pamphlets	12.5 %	75.0 %	12.5 %	8
Lectures	----	50.0 %	50.0 %	2
Films	33.3 %	33.3 %	33.3 %	9
Reading Bulletin Boards	----	33.3 %	66.7 %	3
Talk to Counsellor	44.4 %	33.3 %	22.2 %	9
Role Playing	----	66.7 %	33.3 %	3
Experience	60.9 %	17.4 %	21.7 %	23
Interest and Ability Questionnaires	----	60.0 %	40.0 %	5
Career Games	20.0 %	40.0 %	40.0 %	10
Talk to People	26.3 %	26.3 %	47.4 %	19
Field Trips	25.0 %	16.7 %	58.3 %	12

*Table entries represent adjusted frequency percentages

TABLE 5.17

PROPORTIONATE RATINGS ON PROBLEM AREAS REQUIRING HELP

Problem Areas in Need of Help	Ratings of Importance			N
	1	2	3	
Schoolwork	55.6 %	33.3 %	11.1 %	18
Future Education Plans	72.7 %	9.1 %	18.2 %	11
Home and Family	33.3 %	58.3 %	8.3 %	12
Personal Problems	38.5 %	46.2 %	15.4 %	13
Peers	60.0 %	20.0 %	20.0 %	5
Money	30.0 %	30.0 %	40.0 %	20
Place to Live	14.3 %	28.6 %	57.1 %	7
Find a Job	6.7 %	33.3 %	60.0 %	15
School Plans	----	40.0 %	60.0 %	5
School and Recreation	----	25.0 %	75.0 %	8

*Table entries represent adjusted precentage frequencies

Table 5.18, a number of interpretations are evident. In the initial phase of treatment, the adolescents either deny or have little insight into personal problems and view help in terms of achieving more concrete goals: i.e. money, finding a job, and school work rather than focusing on personal problems.

Pietrofesa and Splete (1975:14) have suggested that prior to delving into vocational programming, adolescents must first focus on their emotional problems. The foregoing results could be interpreted, however, to suggest that initial treatment might better meet the adolescent's needs by including school and vocational programming.

The two to six month category of treatment involvement shows a range of problem rankings from personal problems, school work and course planning to money, finding a job, recreational activities, and a place to live. These results are not surprising when one considers that this is the most intensive phase of treatment where the adolescents become aware of problems and needs. Again the wide range of needs supports Bailey and Stadt (1973) by indicating that treatment must focus on a wide range of problems and needs.

The participants who had been in treatment over six months have indicated their problem areas as job, money, school and educational plans. The results in Table 5.18 support the study's proposition that in the later phase of treatment, the study participants will place more importance on finding a job than personal concerns. Further support

TABLE 5.18

COMPARISON BETWEEN PROBLEM RANKINGS AND LENGTH OF STAY IN TREATMENT PROGRAM

Three Highest Rated Problems	Less Than Two Months N Sample = 21		Two to Six Months N Sample = 8		More Than Six Months N Sample = 9	
1	Money	36.9 %	Schoolwork	20.1 %	Job	40.6 %
2	Finding a job	33.5 %	Money	14.0 %	Future Education Plans	17.4 %
			Place to Live	14.0 %		
3	Problems with school, work	29.5 %	Job	10.6 %	School	14.0 %
			School course planning	10.6 %	Peers	14.0 %
					Money	14.0 %
			School and recreation	10.6 %		

*Table entries represent adjusted frequency percentages

for this study's proposition is given by the fact that seventy-one percent of the study population perceiving work and work experience as part of their treatment. The results of the objective questions, in the final section of the needs assessment, indicated that the majority of the study parti-cipants were lacking in specific vocational knowledge and skills. Only twenty-four percent were correctly able to identify educational requirements for various jobs and eighteen percent were able to read a job advertisement. These results indicate two specific areas of vocational need.

5.3 Development of a Vocational Program Plan Based on Needs Assessment Results

As the final phase of the present study, the results of the vocational needs assessment questionnaire will be utilized as the basis of a preliminary program plan. In a vocational counselling program, there is both process and content to be learned (Reardon and Burck, 1975:132). The process refers to vocational planning as a framework for learning decision making strategies. The content includes the skills to be developed, concepts to be mastered, and generalizations to be arrived at.

The process of vocational counseling involves providing procedures to reduce indecision and conflicting feelings about vocational development. In the process, he learns to utilize his strengths in the development of a course of action or career plan (Peters and Shertzer, 1969:267).

Consideration will be given in this section to designing program content in terms of the instruction and activities which would address the vocational needs identitied by the study population.

Difficulties encountered by young people today in comprehending the intricate relationships of occupational life have prompted a growing interest in the development and experimentation with procedures and media by which accurate information may be communicated. An impressive body of knowledge for providing education and exploratory experience that develops broad occupational awareness has accumulated (Peters and Shertzer, 1963:141). It is beyond the scope of this thesis to comprehensively review this extensive literature. The specific intention is to select some suggested vocational activities to correspond with the vocational needs identified in the previous analysis.

The following preliminary vocational program plan is designed using a 'system approach model.' In recent years, a new technology known as instructional design has emerged. As the field has developed, systems analysis approaches have been used extensively to facilitate the development of instructional materials. More recently, the method has been used to guide the design of entire educational programs. Hosford and Ryan (1970:221) illustrate a systems approach model for program design in the area of guidance and counselling.

In the system design approaches, there are the following three essential elements: the statement of desired outcomes, the treatment or instructional procedures, and a method of evaluation. Taking these elements into consideration, the researcher has outlined a preliminary vocational program according to the steps outlined in Figure 5.1.

The first step in the design process calls for an intensive review and thorough understanding of the problems the program is to address. Clarification of the problem has been addressed in the first chapter of the present thesis.

The vocational needs assessment questionnaire developed for and utilized in the present study has identified the characteristics of the program constituents and their specific vocational needs.

Proposed Vocational Counselling Program Objectives

1. To help the clientele understand their personal characteristics, realize their potentialities, attain an appropriate concept of self, and experience behaviors resulting from the cognitive analysis in this process.
2. To assist the clientele to explore vocational opportunities through the use of vocational information and experience.
3. To help the clientele relate information about himself and about occupations in terms of self-concept.

FIGURE 5.1

A SYSTEMS APPROACH MODEL FOR USE IN A VOCATIONAL COUNSELLING PROGRAM DESIGN

A. Clarifying the Problem

B. Identifying Program Constituents, Their Needs, and Entry Characteristics.

C. Formulating Specific Goals and Performance Objectives

D. Organizing Program Elements (instructional and informational components)

E. Ascertaining Formative and Summative Evaluations

feedback

Modified from Hosford, R. E. and Ryan, T. A. "System design in the development of counselling and guidance programs." Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1970: 221-230.

4. To develop plans, set goals, and increase his understanding of himself in relation to the world of work.
5. To free the learning capacities of the clientele through the vocational process by strengthening their ego functions, self-concept, and planning activities to implement them.

Proposed Vocational Counselling Program General Goals

1. To provide the clientele with information about themselves through test and inventories for self-exploration.
2. To help the clientele understand the world as it relates to their capablilities.
3. To learn about broad fields of work and see the relationship of these fields to curriculum choices.
4. To move toward greater self-realization through wise decision-making and planning.

Figures 5.2, 5.3, and 5.4 represent a model description of some suggested vocational program activities and methods. In constructing the program outline section, each domain contains activities and instructional materials which are proposed to effectively facilitate the attainment of the needs derived from the present research. The model outline consists of need statements, specific goals, program activities, and references.

Following from the development of the skeleton form of a vocational program, the next step would be to begin the

FIGURE 5.2

PROPOSED VOCATIONAL COUNSELLING PROGRAM MODEL
PHASE I SELF-EXPLORATION

Identified Need	Specific Goal	Program Activity
1. To know how smart I am. To know what I would be good at. To know what job I would be good at.	1. To administer testing with interpretation to give clientele understanding of intellectual capacity, abilities, aptitude, and vocational interests.	1. Assessment Techniques a) Vocational Interest Tests -Strong Vocational Interest Blank -Minnesota Vocational Interest Inventory -Dailey Vocational Test -Kuder Preference Record - Vocational -Kuder Preference Record - Occupational Interest Inventory -Vocational Preference Inventory b) Ability Tests -California Test of Mental Maturity -Ohio Survey Test -Kuhlman Anderson c) Achievement Tests -Stanford Achievement Test -Iowa Test of Basic Skills -Ohio Survey Test d) Aptitude Tests -Differential Aptitude Test -General Aptitude Test Battery e) Vocational Maturity Tests -Attitude Scale of the Career Maturity Inventory -Harren's Vocational Decision Making Checklist f) Work Values -Super's Work Values Inventory
2. To improve study habits. To stop wasting time.	2. To assess, develop, and evaluate clientele's study habits.	2. a) Assessment -develop a checklist to record observations of clientele's study habits and skills -use Wrenn's Study Habits Inventory, which concentrates on four areas: -reading and note-taking -concentration -distribution of time and social relations -general habits and attitudes of work b) Development -teach the use of encyclopedias, dictionaries, and readers' guides -make available "How To Study" materials, i.e. booklets, pamphlets, books, films and bulletin boards -teach test preparation, note taking, and planning homework and budgeting time -short teaching unit on study methods, i.e. "Fifteen Lessons How to Study Course" c) Evaluation -check information which was disseminated periodically on following measures: increasing reading ability, greater skills in organizing work, better use of educational facilities, and more staisfying personal and social adjustment

FIGURE 5.3

Proposed Vocational Counselling Program Model

Identified Need	Specific Goal	Program Activity
1. To know information about various jobs. To know the skills for different jobs.	1. To provide the clinetele with general occupational information.	1. a) Technical Activities -computer-based occupational informational system -microfilm storage, retrieval, and dissemination of occupational information b) Published Materials -set up a Career Guidance Library, i.e. occupational pamphlets, life adjustment, booklets, school and college placements career index, career fiction, occupational monographs, and abstracts and recruitment literature bulletins c) Audio-Visual Materials -tape recordings -slides -films -posters and charts -bulletin board materials d) Experiential Activities -in-school visitations and field trips to different work sites -work study programs
2. To talk to people at different jobs.	2. To give clientele the opportunity to learn about various occupational roles.	2. Experiential Activities -field trips -school visitations -work study and work experience programs -set up community career week
3. To feel less bored. To find what kind of work I can do to earn money.	3. To explore the community and its resources in terms of employment opportunities and recreation.	3. a) Classroom Activities -study unit on reading want ads, applying for jobs, and job interviews -lecture on recreational and employment opportunities for various age groups from Manpower and Parks and Recreation -discussion groups b) Out of Classroom Activities -field trips to Manpower, student employment services, volunteer agencies, hospitals, etc.

FIGURE 5.4

Proposed Vocational Counselling Program Model

Identified Need	Specific Goal	Program Activity
1. To make plans for job and education after high school. To know what subjects to take to get a job. To know education for job plan.	1. To explore abilities, interests, occupational and educational opportunities to assist clientele in arriving at an educational and occupational plan.	1. a) Classroom Activities -study unit on educational opportunities -organize supervised use of educational information in library, i.e. college directory and post high school institutional catalogues and directories, pamphlets on scholarships, loans, and financial aids, directory of universities, guides to planning and preparing for colleges and universities b) Out of Classroom Activities -university and technical school visitations -utilize representatives from higher educational facilities to liason between the University and high school, e.g. lectures c) Counselling Activities -informational and counselling services to parents by individual or group conferences -interviews and counselling with students on educational plans, i.e. group and individual
2. To learn courses needed to get into University, etc. To plan courses for next semester. To be ready for a job after high school.	2. To explore vocational plans to help clientele plan course curriculum to prepare for future educational and vocational plans.	2. a) In Classroom Activities -study unit on requirements for University, technical school and post high school institutions' entrance -schema considering the curriculum choices as a part of a systematic program of vocational guidance b) Counselling Activities -individual and group discussions with students and parents
3. To learn to make decisions.	3. To teach and practice effective decision-making and provide a realistic experience with certain aspects of adult life.	3. a) Experiential Activities -role play decision-making situations -group discussion -use the "Life Career Game," a simulated environmental tool for teaching decision making -other simulated games -"Life Planning Workshops" - structured group experience focusing on self-assessment and projection into future b) In Classroom Activities -lecture on Decision-Making Model
4. To learn to fill out a job application form. To learn to take orders. To learn how to find a job.	4. To learn basic job skills, i.e. filling out an application, job finding procedures, and job maintenance.	4. a) In-Classroom Activities -films on work habits -study unit on job preparation and job search b) Experiential Activities -role play job situations -discussion groups -work study and work experience -simulated job preparation

task of developing each program element and sequence in a completed version suitable for an inital field trial. The various program elements and activities being developed would need to be tested with small representative samples of populations characteristically similar to the intended clientele. The purpose would be to obtain feedback for possible revision before extensive field trial of the program takes place. This formative evaluation is needed to identify problems with the materials as they are being developed.

As part of the full field trial, the last step in the systems approach model calls for a summative evaluation in which representative samples of all program clientele provide feedback. It is this feedback which would serve as the basis for subsequent program revision.

A number of professionals have made suggestions for classifying the evaluative studies made by vocational counselling personnel. Wrenn formulated three categories from a review of the research: 1) the logical survey method, in which the needs of students are determined and services designed to meet these are developed; 2) the experimental cross-section method, in which a counselled group is compared with a non-counselled group; and 3) the development method, in which evidence of the total achievements of a student is collected over a considerable length of time (Wrenn. 1940:357).

Rushong, in a more recent statement of evaluation, discusses three classifying methods: 1) survey method, in which existing procedures and techniques are assessed to determine the extent to which they achieve objectives; 2) scientific method, in which appraisal is attempted by objective instruments of evaluation; and 3) comprehensive method, in which clinical judgment is applied to questionnaires, observations, case histories, anecdotal records, and interviews to estimate the outcomes of the counselling program (Rushong, 1953:418).

The foregoing model provides a framework for the identification, development, implementation, and evaluation of a vocational counselling program for emotionally disturbed adolescents.

Additional information would include the number and type of students served, as well as a detailed description of the activity. Ideally, the model would include a statement of the specific outcomes expected at the termination of each activity. Although the present model does not include specific outcomes, the statement of outcomes would be an important undertaking in future refinements. It should be noted that the model is incomplete in several areas and restricted to the description of some possible vocational development activities available for adolescents. However, it does provide a starting point which can serve several important functions for organizing an effective vocational counselling program.

The model allows both staff and clientele the opportunity to identify the variety of services available to them and permits them to select the activity which most appropriately satisfies their needs in the vocational development area. In addition, the model provides a format for selecting evaluative procedures. It also provides for the coordination of services by identifying areas of unnecessary repetition and service gaps. It supplies a blueprint for the development of new programs. Finally, through the process of continual revision and refinement, the model can remain flexible and responsive to the vocational needs of the clientele it serves.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The present study has attempted to systematically elicit and identify the perceived "felt" vocational needs of a specific population of emotionally disturbed adolescents. In particular, the study aim was to design and utilize a needs assessment questionnaire. The study goal was to identify the vocational dimensions important to the study population as the basis for a preliminary vocational program action plan.

In designing the present study, it was assumed that program planning should be based on the program participants' perception of needs. In addition, it was assumed that it is the fulfillment of these needs which will influence successful functioning in the community.

6.1 Conclusions

The needs assessment questionnaire was designed to focus on quantifying vocational need identification in the social area of community integration. The study instrument attempted to elicit data in a number of areas. Firstly, to provide demographic data for population descriptive purposes. Secondly, to give some indication as to the level of social and community adaptation of the study participants.

Thirdly, to identify the 'felt' developmental and vocational needs of the study participants.

Although the study design was exploratory in nature, the validity of a number of research propositions was being tested. Contrary to the research proposition, results indicated that there were no statistically significant differences between Day and Evening groups in community and social adaptation. However, overall, the population rated themselves in comparison with their peers as being below average in social adaptation.

Results did support the professional literature's contention that there is a relationship between the developmental needs of adolescents and vocational planning. Data from the survey of vocational needs support the study's proposition that this population does indeed feel the need to acquire specific vocational skills and knowledge. As well, results support that the study participants desire to work and perceive work as a viable part of their therapeutic program. Furthermore, results indicated that in the later phase of treatment the study population placed greater importance on the need to find a job than on personal problem areas.

Finally, data on the study participants' past counselling involvement supports the proposition that this is an area which is not being provided for in the school system.

In addition to testing the foregoing research propositions, the results provide further support for a number of conclusions.

In comparing demographic and social variables between the Day and Evening groups, a number of differences were statistically significant. The Evening Program adolescents tended to be predominantly male, have greater family stability, less school mobility, and higher career aspirations with a greater awareness of an appropriate educational plan.

A high proportion of the study population perceived that society has a responsibility to provide jobs and recreation to teenagers. This result lends support to the conclusion that work still remains a major tenet of society. As well, it may indicate that society is falling short of its obligation in this area.

The exploration of reasons for the study participants desiring to work lends support to the belief that the prevalent work ethic is one of self-fulfillment and self-actualization. The study population in general viewed work as a means to feel responsible, maintain self-esteem, and acquire an identity.

The study population's identification of areas requiring help showed a widespread range of needs. This result supports the belief that adolescents have a range of treatment needs which have to be incorporated into program planning. Vocational planning and work experience was identified throughout the study population regardless of length of stay in treatment. This supports the notion that vocational programming has a role throughout the treatment process.

The conclusions supported by the present study were based on subjective rather than objective data. Since the study was a needs assessment, this was not a major concern. However, it does impose limitations as to the statistical validity of measurement in the questionnaire instrument design.

In evaluating the research design, a main consideration is the validity and accuracy of the study population's perception of needs. As well, there is no statistical support for validity of the variables being measured. Concern in the present study was with subjective experiences. Therefore, the extent to which the Needs Assessment Questionnaire as a scale measures what it is designed to measure is a difficult validation process. As in other research where theoretical variables are given operational form, validation is necessarily indirect. The design of the study could be strengthened by emphasizing only major components, i.e. vocational needs, and eliminating and or controlling for some of the influencing variables.

The data of this study could only be examined by visual inspection of tables. A number of tables were presented by clustering variables into groups to show substantial agreement or disagreement in certain 'need' categories. This grouping could be viewed as concealing the significance of individual variables.

Population size was small as this study was a preliminary investigation. However, due to the small population size, validity of the statistical tests of differences could be questioned. Although the study population consisted of two groups, it was not intended to differentiate perceived needs between groups. However, the heterogeneity of the study population could influence the validity of measurement in terms of the population rather than groups. Furthermore, in terms of analysis, broad grouping of the population was used. This may have obscured, if not vitiated results that may be clearly demonstrated if more homogeneous diagnostic groups were studied.

6.2 Recommendations

The final part of this discussion will focus upon the main points for future investigation that have been suggested by the data.

Suggestions for future research would include statistical testing such as factor analysis with an increase in population size. The purpose would be to assess the measurement validity and the relationship between variables in the study questionnaire. Measurement of variables related to self-esteem, community, and social adaptation could be strengthened by using standardized items in the measurement.

Further research in terms of the population would be a comparison of the vocational needs between a normal control group and a treatment group of adolescents. Also, exploration could be done using diagnostically homogeneous populations and a comparison of the differences between populations.

From the present study's intital exploration of vocational needs, a data base for preliminary program planning has been established. Further research would focus on formative and summative evaluations of a pilot vocational program. A systems model approach would be used with program goals that can be objectively measured. Summative evaluation will pose a key question. One of the critical areas to investigate will be to find evidence that vocational programming increases chances of success in the adolescent's functioning and integrating into the community over a period of time. Research of this nature would include a control population and focus on measurement of success and program effectiveness.

Through research on the vocational needs of the population, future direction for planning a training program for professionals could be established. Further experimentation and research is also needed to determine ways in which counsellors can function most effectively in relation to vocational programs, i.e. teacher, facilitator, team, or other capacity.

The needs of young people for effective vocational counselling are far from being met. There are some promising approaches in progress which are helping to bridge the gap between theory and practice. There exists, however, much theory and research on vocational development, but little research on the application of these techniques and activities and their usefulnes. This remains an area for future research.

The practical implication of research in this area is that professionals can be trained to meet the needs of their clientele. As well, programming could be developed from need identification, rather than theoretical constructs. Programming will also be held accountable by ensuring ongoing evaluation.

Support for continuing research in this area lies in the community's responsiblity for ensuring that young people have the opportunity to develop and utilize their potentialities as members of society. Since large sums of public and private funds are spent yearly on the education and treatment of teenagers, there is a pressing societal need for research on understanding and reducing the social and economic pressures influencing them.

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APPENDIX 1

ADOLESCENT NEEDS QUESTIONNAIRE

I. Please answer the following questions:

1. AGE: ______________________

2. GRADE: (at present time or when last attended school)

____

3. Your Sex?

1. Male ____
2. Female ____

4. How many complete months have you been in this group program?

1. Less than 2 months ____
2. 2 to 6 months ____
3. More than 6 months ____

5. Are your parents?

1. Married ____
2. Living common-law ____
3. Divorced ____
4. Widowed ____
5. Separated ____
6. Remarried ____

6. Who do you live with?

1. Both parents ____
2. One parent ____
3. Foster parents ____
4. Group home parents ____
5. Prent and step-parent ____
6. Prent and common-law partner ____
7. Residence for teenagers ____
8. Others ____

7. Does your father work?

1. Yes ____
2. No ____

If yes, what is his job? _________________________

8. Does your mother work?

   1. Yes ____
   2. No ____

   If yes, what is her job? ______________________________

9. Have you worked in the past?

   1. Yes ____
   2. No ____

   If NO go to question 12.

10. If yes, list the jobs and the number of months worked. Begin with your most recent job.

JOB	MONTHS
1. ______________________________	1. ___________
2. ______________________________	2. ___________
3. ______________________________	3. ___________
4. ______________________________	4. ___________

11. When working what are the problems you have had:

    Check yes X if it has been a problem.
    Check no X if it has not been a problem.

		YES	NO
1.	Losing my temper	___	___
2.	Being late	___	___
3.	Getting fired	___	___
4.	Missing work	___	___
5.	Being bored with the work	___	___
6.	Finding the job too difficult	___	___
7.	Not getting along with the boss	___	___
8.	Not getting along with other workers	___	___
9.	Too much pressure	___	___
10.	Disliking being told what to do	___	___
11.	Not getting enough money	___	___
12.	Stealing	___	___
13.	Breaking rules	___	___
14.	Others ____________________________	___	___

12. How many times have you moved in the past 5 years?

____

13. How many different schools have you gone to?

____

14. Do you go to school?

Yes______ No______

If so skip to question 16

15. How long have you gone to your present school?

____

16. How well are you doing at school or how well did you do in school when you last attended?

1) _____below average 2) _____average
3) _____above average

17. Do you know what kind of job or career you want?

1. Yes __________
2. No __________

If no, go to question 20

18. If yes, what is the job or career you want?

____

19. What education do you need to get this job or career?

1. High school diploma ____________________
2. Vocational school ____________________
3. Apprenticeship training ________________
4. Grade 10 ______________________________
5. University diploma ____________________
6. On the job experience _________________
7. Other (please specify) ________________

20. Are you involved in sports? For example: swimming, skating, hockey, roller skating, etc.

1. Yes _____
2. No _____

21. If yes, how often do you participate in sports?

    1. Once a day _____
    2. Once a week _____
    3. Once a month _____
    4. A few times a year ____

22. Are you involved in activities in your spare time? For example, reading, music, parties, crafts, etc.

    1. Yes _____
    2. No _____

23. If yes, how often do you do activities?

    1. Once a day _____
    2. Once a week _____
    3. Once a month _____
    4. A few times a year ____

24. Are you involved in doing chores. For example: dishes, making beds, cleaning, babysitting, etc.

    1. Yes _____
    2. No _____

25. Do your parents have to remind you to do your chores?

    1. Yes _____
    2. No _____

26. Do you get an allowance?

    1. Yes _____
    2. No _____

27. How many close friends do you have?

    1)_____none 2)_____1

    3)_____ 2 or 3 4)_____4 or more

28. How many times a week do you do things with your friends?

    1)_____less than 1 2)_____ 1 or 2 3)_____3 or more

29. Compared with other teenagers of your age, how well do you :

	Worse than Same	About the	Better than
a) get along with your brothers or sisters?	____	____	____
b) get along with other teenagers?	____	____	____
c) get along with your parents?	____	____	____
d) get along with your school work, chores, or a job?	____	____	____

II. Please mark each statement in the following way:

If the statement describes how you usually feel, put a check mark in the column "Like Me".

If the statement describes how you sometimes feel, put a check mark in the column "Sometimes Like Me".

If the statement does not describe how you usually feel, put a check mark in the column "Unlike Me".

	Like Me	Sometimes Like Me	Unlike Me
1. A job makes you less dependent on your parents	____	____	____
2. I want my parents to see me as grown-up	____	____	____
3. I would like to be less dependent on my parents	____	____	____
4. I wish I had more freedom to find myself	____	____	____
5. I often think about leaving school and getting a job to support myself	____	____	____
6. I think my parents should look after me	____	____	____

	Like Me	Sometimes Like Me	Unlike Me
	______	______	______
7. I am beginning to wonder about what I will do when school is over	______	______	______
8. I have always known what I want to do with my life	______	______	______
9. Working at a job would help me find "who I am".	______	______	______
10. I want to know what I can do well.	______	______	______
11. I find it hard to obey rules.	______	______	______
12. I wish I could be more useful in the community.	______	______	______
13. I do or have in the past skipped school a lot.	______	______	______
14. I want to be needed.	______	______	______
15. I really want to work.	______	______	______
16. I would get into less trouble if there were more activities or jobs to do.	______	______	______
17. I find it hard to feel that I belong.	______	______	______
18. One of the things I fear most is being a failure.	______	______	______
19. I am a good person.	______	______	______
20. I feel alone.	______	______	______
21. I am dumb at most things.	______	______	______

	Like Me	Sometimes Like Me	Unlike Me
	____	____	____
22. If I know what I was good at, I would feel better.	____	____	____
23. I want to be liked by others.	____	____	____

III. The following statements talk about needs which teenagers sometimes have.

If the statement describes a need you have, put a check mark in the column "Like Me".

If the statement describes a need which you do not have, put a check mark in the column "Unlike Me".

	Like Me	Unlike Me
	____	____
I need to:		
1. -- Stop wasting my time.	____	____
2. -- Feel less bored with life.	____	____
3. -- Know whether I am smart enough to get better marks.	____	____
4. -- Know what I am good at.	____	____
5. -- Find out what kind of job I would be good at.	____	____
6. -- Learn how to make decisions.	____	____
7. -- Find out what kind of work I could do to earn money.	____	____
8. -- Work at a job to show that I am responsible.	____	____
9. -- Know how to read a "help wanted" ad.	____	____
10. -- Know how to fill in a job application.	____	____
11. -- Know how to act at a job interview.	____	____
12. -- Learn how to take orders from a boss.	____	____
13. -- Improve my study habits.	____	____
14. -- Know how to find a job.	____	____
15. -- Be ready for a job after high school.	____	____
16. -- Learn how to follow rules at a job.	____	____

	Like Me	Unlike Me
17. -- Know where to get involved in a sport or activity in the community, like soccer, baseball, music, swimming, crafts, or roller skating.	_____	_____
18. -- Find information about courses and credits I have to have for high school graduation.	_____	_____
19. -- Know where to find information about jobs.	_____	_____
20. -- Know what skills you have to have for different jobs.	_____	_____
21. -- Make plans to get the job or education that I want after school.	_____	_____
22. -- Know how the subjects I take at school will help me get a job.	_____	_____
23. -- Know if NAIT, University or other training is necessary to get the job I want.	_____	_____
24. -- Talk to people who work at different jobs that I am interested in.	_____	_____
25. -- Learn what courses and grades I have to have to get into university, technical schools, apprenticeship and other specialized training.	_____	_____
26. -- Plan the right courses to take next semester.	_____	_____
27. -- Know what subjects to take at school to help me get a job.	_____	_____

IV. I think Society should do the following for teenagers:

Place the numbers 1, 2, or 3 beside the areas where you most need help beginning with the most important area. Select only 3 from the list.

1. Provide teenagers with jobs. _____
2. Lower the age when teenagers can live on their own. _____
3. Pay for my rent so I can move out on my own. _____
4. Have work experience as part of school. _____

5. Lower the drinking age. ______

6. Provide community recreation centers for teenagers. ______

7. Treat teenagers with more respect. ______

V. We would like to discover the extent to which you are familiar with counselling services offered in your school. By knowing how you feel aobut this phase of your school program, we shall be better able to help you in the areas which you indicate. Will you please respond as frankly and honestly as you are able.

DIRECTIONS: Will you please check "YES" or "NO" to indicate your feelings about each question. If you feel you cannot give a definite YES or NO answer, will you please check in the space marked (?).

	Yes	No	?
At your school:			
1. -- Are you helped to understand yourself and how it relates to your educational and job plans?	___	___	___
2. -- Are you given information about the various jobs you have considered?	___	___	___
3. -- Have you talked to your school counsellor?	___	___	___
If yes, what did you discuss?			
1) Grades.	___	___	___
2) Courses.	___	___	___
3) Personal Problems.	___	___	___
4) Attendance.	___	___	___
5) Your behavior in class.	___	___	___
6) Others________________	___	___	___

4. -- Do you meet with other students to discuss education and future plans? ___ ___ ___

5. -- Are you given information about colleges and schools which offer courses after high school? ___ ___ ___

6. -- Are you helped to plan the subjects and activities you need and want to take? ___ ___ ___

7. -- Are you helped to become familiar with the possibilities for jobs in the community. ___ ___ ___

8. -- Do teachers talk about varioius jobs which are related to the subjects they teach? ___ ___ ___

9. -- Have you been told if you have the brains to go to college or university? ___ ___ ___

10. -- Have you received help in the improvement of your study habits and skills? ___ ___ ___

11. -- Have your experiences helped you to be prepared for a job? ___ ___ ___

12. -- Have you been given job counselling? ___ ___ ___

VI. Do you want a job?

Yes____ No____

If yes, why do you want a job?

Place the numbers 1, 2, and 3 beside the most important reasons for you. Begin with the most important area. Select only 3 from the list.

1. To show my parents that I can be responsible. ______
2. To feel less bored. ______
3. To earn money. ______
4. To be less dependent on my parents. ______
5. To prove something to myself that I can be good at something. ______
6. To be like my friends. ______
7. To feel like an adult. ______
8. To learn something new. ______

VII. 1. Place the numbers 1, 2, and 3 beside the three ways in which you learn best by. Select only 3 from the list.

a) Discussion groups. ______
b) Books and pamphlets. ______
c) Lectures. ______
d) Films. ______
e) Reading bulletin boards. ______
f) Talking to a counsellor. ______
g) Role playing (acting out people and situations). ______
h) Experience. (trying out) ______
i) Interest and ability questionnaires. ______
j) Career games. ______
k) Talking to people who work in various jobs. ______
l) Field trips. (visiting jobs) ______

2. Place the numbers 1, 2, and 3 beside the areas where you most need help beginning with the most important one. Select only three from the list.

I need help with the following:

a) Problems with school work. ______
b) My future education plans. ______
c) Home and family. ______
d) Personal problems. ______
e) Getting along with peers. ______

f) Money. ______
g) A place to live. ______
h) Finding a job. ______
i) What school courses to take. ______
j) School and recreation. ______

3. I would like the Adolescent Group Program to help me get work experience or a job.

Yes______ No______

VIII. Write the letter of the right answer for each statement in the blank space to the left of the number.

______ 1. To become an electrician you must:

a) Go to University
b) Apprentice with an electrician
c) Get your Grade 10.

______ 2. To become a radio and TV service man you must:

a) Start as a helper
b) Be able to design equipment
c) Study electronics.

______ 3. To become a salesclerk you must:

a) Have a pleasing personality
b) Be a college graduate
c) Get a license.

______ 4. To become a book-keeper you must:

a) Go to IBM school
b) Be able to take dictation
c) Be good with numbers.

______ 5. To become a newspaper reporter you must:

a) Like to work indoors
b) Be a good writer
c) Like to travel.

______ 6. To become a hair dresser you must:

a) Go to university
b) Be interested in science
c) Attend a training school.

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Look at the ads on this page. Use them to help you answer the questions.

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1. What telephone number should you call if you want to be a teller for Johnston Trust Company? ______________

2. During what hours should you call the Johnston Trust Company? ______________

3. Should a shy person apply for this job? _____ Explain your answer. ____

4. A downtown restaurant needs help. What should you do if you want to apply for a job there?

____

5. Should you apply for a job as a waiter or waitress if you have never done this kind of work before?

____

6. A Market Street firm is looking for a legal secretary. What experience is required?

____

7. The Graham Bakery needs a baker. Can you call on the telephone for more information?

____

8. When should you apply for the job at the Graham Bakery?

____